REPORT RESUMES

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THE NET IMPACT OF THE CARDOZA AREA DEMONSTRATION PROGRAM, 1964-1965. FIRST YEAR REPORT.

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A 1ST-YEAR REPORT OF AN EVALUATION STUDY OF ACTION AND DEMONSTRATION PROGRAMS FOR DELINQUENCY PREVENTION AMONG URBAN GHETTO YOUTH IS PRESENTED. THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY WAS TO DETERMINE THE NET EFFECTIVENESS OF THE INTERVENTION EFFORTS OF WASHINGTON ACTION FOR YOUTH IN A SCHOOL DISTRICT WITH A HIGH CONCENTRATION OF LOW-INCOME NEGRO YOUTH. THE RESEARCH DESIGN INCLUDED (1) A BASE EXPECTANCY STUDY TO COLLECT DATA FOR DELINQUENCY PREDICTION, (2) IDENTIFICATION AND STUDY OF AN ADOLESCENT COHORT OF 14- TO 17-YEAR-OLDS, (3) STUDIES OF SOME OF THE COHORT FAMILIES, (4) RESEARCH ON A SAMPLE OF THE DEMONSTRATION PRESCHOOL POPULATION IN THE AREA, AND (5) AN ACCOUNTING OF THE POPULATION FOR POTENTIAL USE IN A DATA BANK. THE ORIGINAL FAMILY STUDY WAS EXPANDED INTO A SYSTEMATIC STUDY OF LOW INCOME FAMILIES, AND THE COGNITIVE DATA ON THE PRESCHOOL CHILDREN WAS USED TO STUDY THEIR LANGUAGE RESPONSES TO DIFFERENT STIMULI UNDER VARYING CONDITIONS. IT WAS HYPOTHESIZED THAT THERE WOULD BE SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCES BETWEEN INSTITUTIONALIZED AND NONINSTITUTIONALIZED YOUTH ON SUCH FACTORS AS LOW SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS, EDUCATION, FAMILY CHARACTERISTICS, INTACT OR BROKEN HOMES, SOCIAL CLASS ASPIRATIONS, PEER GROUP BEHAVIOR, AND NEIGHBORHOOD DEVIANCY. THE VARIOUS ASPECTS OF THE STUDY ARE DISCUSSED IN DETAIL, AND MUCH OF THE RELEVANT DATA IS SUMMARIZED IN 106 TABLES. AN ABSTRACT OF THE STUDY IS INCLUDED. (NH)

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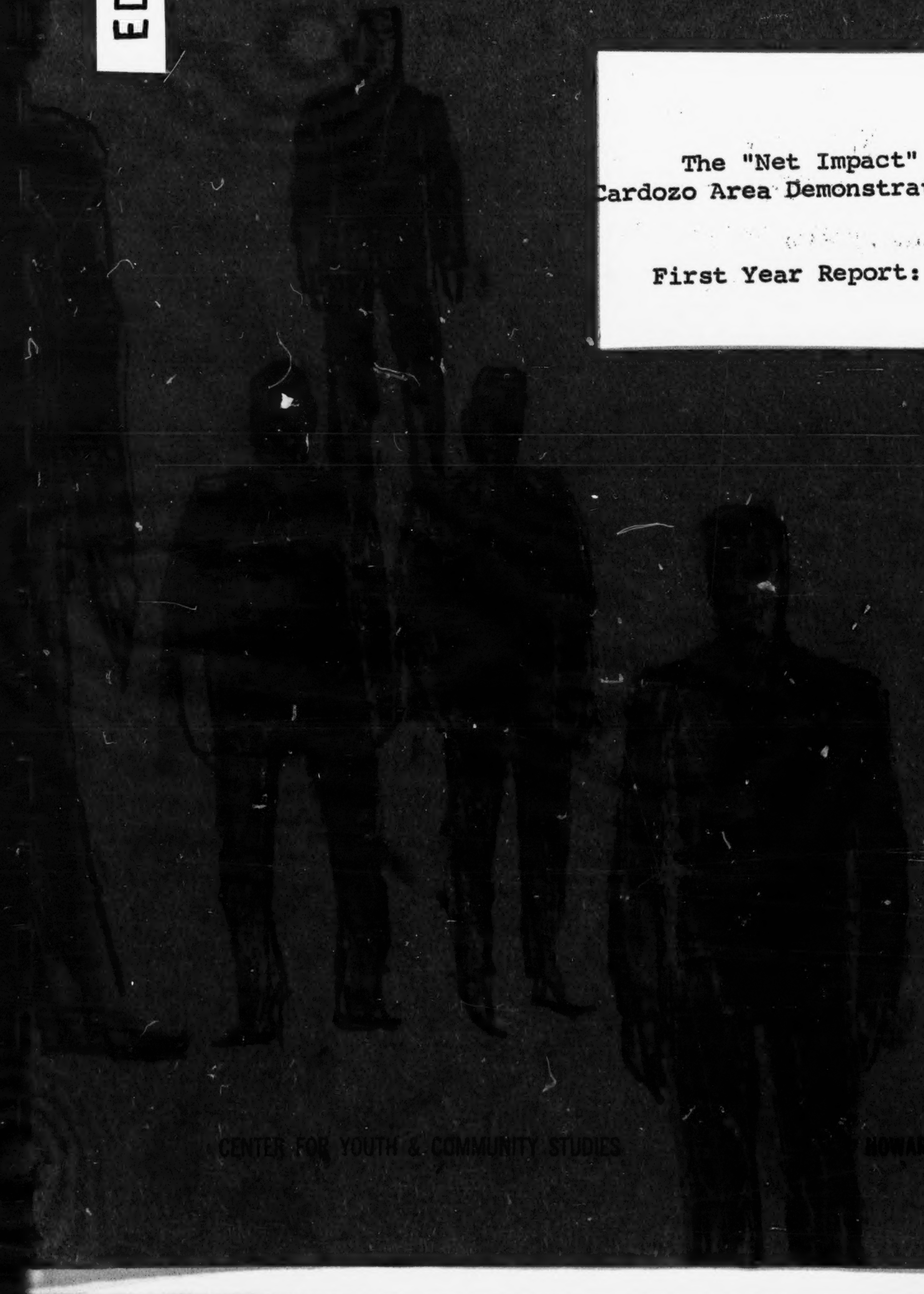
The "Net Impact" of the Cardozo Area Demonstration Program

First Year Report: 1964-65



CENTER FOR YOUTH & COMMUNITY STUDIES HOWARD UNIVERSITY WASHINGTON, D

First Year Report:
The "Net Impact" of the Cardozo Area
Demonstration Program

1964-1965

(Report on an Evaluation Study being conducted by the Howard University Institute for Youth Studies for the Anti-Delinquency Demonstration Program of the United Planning Organization in Washington, D.C.)

Submitted by:

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HOWARD UNIVERSITY
Washington, D. C.

June 1966

This study was supported primarily through contract with and services from the United Planning Organization of the Greater Washington Metropolitan Area, Mr. James Banks, Director. Funds utilized were part of a grant to that organization by the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime (Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, U. S. Department of Health, Education and Welfare, Mr. Bernard Russell, Director).

Certain aspects of this study, including the planning and portions of the salaries of the lay personnel were supported in part by a grant for the development of a research program on problems of youth from the Foundations Fund for Research in Psychiatry.

We would like to express our appreciation to these organizations and their Directors for making this study possible.

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PREFACE

The Howard University Institute for Youth Studies (formerly named the Center for Youth and Community Studies) was organized for the purpose of developing innovative and effective approaches to the multifaceted problems of youth in our society utilizing interdisciplinary resources. In particular, the program has focused on youth trapped in the urban ghetto. The span of our interests in research, training, and intervention led us to a major concern with the development of meaningful techniques for evaluating and measuring the effectiveness of programs dedicated to intervention and change. It is clearly not sufficient to accurately describe problems, and launch a multitude of "logical" or politically convincing interventions, no matter how much money can be mobilized. It is necessary to systematically and objectively measure effectiveness in terms of the goals and hypotheses originally stated in a demonstration or intervention program. This kind of research, of which this study is beginning, has come to be called Action Research when applied to social intervention. The concept of Action Research is analogous to the traditions of clinical research in medicine. One cannot know whether the medicine is working just because the patient seems to be changing at the time of treatment. This would be pedantic if not for the fact that at present large, expensive, and complex programs of social intervention are being mounted with minimal attention to adequate evaluation of either achievement of objectives (quality control) or effectiveness.

The current study was undertaken as part of an attempt to evaluate the "Net Impact" of the anti-delinquency demonstration program in the Cardozo area of D.C.* on the lives of youth in that area. The prelude to this report is really the Washington Action for Youth proposal and the data therein. The present document is based on the data collected during the first year of what was intended as a three-year study on contract with UPO demonstration project itself. It was intended to develop a framework to provide data to the demonstration staff for their guidance rather than as a total "outside" assessment and evaluation of overall program. This is in part an inherent limitation of part of this particular study. This year's report describes the population and the techniques to be utilized in collecting evaluation data. Neither the program nor the data collection are sufficiently advanced to provide meaningful answers on effectiveness.

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* Initially developed by Washington Action for Youth which was subsequently absorbed into the United Planning Organization. The program and research was funded by the President's Committee on Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Crime. (office of J.D. - Department of Health, Education and Welfare).

During this first year of activity, five components were included in the research design: 1) identification and study of a randomly selected Adolescent Cohort, aged 14 and 17, from the total population of the target area; 2) a study of the families of part of the Adolescent Cohort; 3) the development of Base Expectancy data on the area youth population with consideration of the feasibility of mounting an evaluative study based on base expectancy tables; 4) focused study of a sample of the demonstration pre-school population of the target area; and 5) an accounting of total population receiving services from the various components of the demonstration program.

The original design of the components are included in Appendix A. Two aspects of the design were changed. The family component was expanded from a general collection of anecdotal material to a systematic study of the low-income family in that area. Added on to the collection of cognitive data of the pre-school child was a study of language responses to different stimulus materials under varied conditions.

The period covered by this first report is November 1, 1964 through December 15, 1965. The first Project Director (Dr. Pearl), who had a major share in the original design of organization, left in June 1965. It is to the credit of the senior investigators (Dr. Hurst and then Dr. Jones), who filled this role subsequently, that they were able to successfully pick up from that point in managing a complex and ambitious set of tasks.

Mutual benefits was obtained from the participation of interested Howard graduate and undergraduate students in data collection and analyses. During the year, 31 students participated. They came from the departments of Psychology, Sociology, Education, Economics, Physics, Home Economics and the School of Social Work.

Fifteen local out-of-work, or out-of-school youth, with delinquent-prone or delinquent backgrounds were trained in this project as Research Aides as part of the New Careers Training Program* being developed at the Institute for Youth Studies. Three were subsequently employed in the project itself and twelve in the Research Division of the United Planning Organization. Neighborhood Youth Corps members also have and are currently being utilized.

We would like to express our appreciation to Hyman Frankel, Ph.D., then Deputy Director I/C of Research and Planning of UPO for his role in planning and arranging the first year's contract and relationship with UPO; to Seymour Rosenthal, Bernard Russell, and the other staff of the Office of Juvenile Delinquency and Youth Development, D.H.E.W., who made the primary grant to UPO and subsequent contract to us possible; to Donald Henderson, Research Director of UPO, for his help and guidance; and to our own staff members who made the study possible in spite of the many difficulties. This staff is listed on Page I.

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* Fishman, McLennan, Pearl, Klein, Mitchell, Walker, "Training for New Careers" (the Community Apprentice Program developed by the IYS, Howard University), 107 pp., President's Committee on J.D. and Youth Crime, July 1965.

We are currently in our second year. It is hoped that out of this project may develop a long-term program of basic and action research on the problems of Washington youth, that may contribute to the search for effective solutions.

Jacob R. Fishman, M.D., Director
Institute for Youth Studies

Roy J. Jones, Ph.D.
Project Director

Chapter One

Design Rationale

There are few precedents in research design aimed at evaluating the new and expanding concept of "community action programs" and no single approach has thus far systematically treated all of the complexities involved. The need for such designs was pointed out convincingly in the Journal of Social Issues where Freeman and Sherwood (1965) state:

> The multi-billion dollar 'War on Poverty' has intensified the demand for a concerted attempt to undertake broad-scale action-research demonstrations, and to engage in knowledge-seeking efforts evaluated in terms-of-effect -rather than merely in terms of whether or not the program proves workable administratively or whether or not so-called "experts" approve of it. Certainly without efforts in this direction, literally billions of dollars may be spent without anyone knowing what works and, what is perhaps more frightening, without our being any better equipped to contribute to the next round of mass change efforts.

In the same journal Brooks (1965), has listed four important functions of the evaluation of community action programs.

1. To inform the funding agent as to the value being received for the dollars spent (The accounting function).
2. To refine and improve the program being evaluated through a continuous feedback (The feedback function).
3. To make available to other communities the results of the program being evaluated (The dissemination function).
4. To clarify, validate, disprove, modify, or otherwise affect the body of theory from which the hypotheses underlying the program were derived (The theory-building function).

Four basic approaches have been suggested for measuring the effect of comprehensive community action programs. These are: the use of ecological data; the use of diagnostic surveys; the use of control groups; and the use of base expectancy tables.

The ecological approach takes into consideration census and related demographic data such as school dropout rates, unemployment rates, delinquency rates, number of public health and public welfare recipients, etc. Wilkins (1963) in evaluating this approach points out that, "correlations which are derived from ecological factors do not hold for individuals; indeed, it is possible to find a positive association in ecological variables on an individual basis."

The analysis of ecological data provides, at best, a general description of the target population at a given point in time. The process of intervention, as well as, changes which result from this intervention, may be obscured through this singular approach.

Factors such as migration, changes in police policies and practices, changes in recording of dropout data, seasonal fluctuations in employment, changes in health and welfare eligibility requirements, as well as the time lapse between the recording, analysis and reporting of such data, may confound the results.

The use of longitudinal diagnostic surveys has risks similar to the ones found in the use of ecological data for measuring net impact. In addition, the normal attrition which occurs in random samples over time may be accelerated by migration occuring as a direct result of an effective community action program.

The third approach uses a control group design. This is to assure that after the introduction of treatment programs, the changes that occur are due only to the treatment and not to extraneous factors. One difficulty with this design is that if comparable groups are drawn from a target area population, there is no assurance against contaminating effects on the untreated group. Since such programs will be widely distributed among the target area population, there can be no restriction on the control group precluding program exposure. The control group can not be sealed off from the rest of the community.

This design becomes more inappropriate for use with comprehensive target area programs. A true experimental group is a rarity; often untreated individuals may be found in the treatment group and treated individuals in the control group.

Solutions to the problem arising over control group assignment may be attempted through the selection of a control group in another part of the city with comparable demographic characteristics, but this also has limitations. The most obvious is that the research effort can not legitimately impose restrictions on the introduction of community action programs in other parts of the city.

The use of the base expectancy technique would seem to hold the greatest promise for studying the net impact of community action programs, This is especially true when elements of the other designs can be combined to supplement this one.

The benefits of this method are: (a) availability of baseline parent population against which a sample may be compared; (b) avoidance of contagion in selecting a comparable control sample from the same target area; and (c) selection of different risk groups from the sample which would permit evaluation of the relative effectiveness of treatment programs for each of these risk groups. The value of the base expectancy tables often outweighs the cost and time involved in their preparation.

At another level it is necessary to determine what type of research is to be conducted within a given community action program, and what type should be conducted by persons or agencies external to the organization. A strong argument can be in favor of external evaluation of the effectiveness of the overall action program. An equally strong argument may be made in favor of designating the accounting function and the feedback function, as internal research tasks.

The present series of studies was initiated by the Howard University's Institute for Youth Studies at the request of the United Planning Organization since they favored external overall evaluation. The major purpose of this study then, was to measure the effect of the United Planning Organization target area programs on the reduction of juvenile delinquency. The United Planning Organization Research Division is undertaking additional studies directly related to the feedback function in evaluating specific program components.

The United Planning Organization programs are based on the assumption that a distinct relationship exists between delinquent behavior and low socio-economic status, and that by providing access to the opportunity system, thereby effecting a broadening of the economic base of the target area, a substantial decrease in delinquent and other anti-social behavior will occur.

In an attempt to validate this assumption, there were four research studies in the original "Net Impact Study" design. These were: (1) The Development of Base Expectancies; (2) The Tracking of an Adolescent Cohort; (3) An Intensive Study of Selected Preschool Cohort; and (4) Population Accounting. The fifth, An Intensive Family Study, was developed during the course of this research.

The Base Expectancy and the Adolescent Cohort Studies

Two of the studies, the base expectancy and the adolescent cohort, were specifically concerned with the effect of the UPO target area program on the reduction of juvenile delinquency.

The base expectancy tables were to be developed in order to make predictions of delinquent behavior for the youth in the adolescent cohort. Youth who had certain characteristics, i.e., came from broken homes, were school dropouts, had developed patterns of truancy, were to be classified into medium, high, or low risk categories. It was hypothesized that if there was no intervention in the lives of these youth, the predictions made as a result of the base expectancy would hold. If, on the other hand, the youth were exposed to these programs of intervention and a reduction in delinquency did occur, the reduction could be attributed, at least in part, to the programs of intervention and the predictions regarding delinquent behavior would not hold.

The Family Study

The original design included the selection of a random sample of youth for intensive study. These youth were to be studied to provide qualitative data to supplement quantitative findings. In developing this plan, the staff became aware of the critical need for data on the varied means developed by the families of these youth for coping with economic and status deprivation, and the effect that the programs of intervention have on these families. The design was then altered to permit examination of different family forms and determine whether differential response patterns emerge as a result of United Planning Organization program intervention.

The Preschool Studies

To determine the impact of the preschool experience on disadvantaged children in the target area, a random sample was drawn from the total preschool population for intensive study. The design called for a study of the home environment, a study of language and a study of the intellectual and psychomotor functioning of the preschool child. The design also called for the establishment of a control group and the collection of intake data on the total preschool population enrolled in the five United Planning Organization preschool centers.

Population Accounting

In population accounting data were collected and analyzed on all contacts made by the United Planning Organization Neighborhood Development Center programs. In the four quarterly statistical reports submitted to United Planning Organization, the number of contacts made, and the number of families served by the Neighborhood Development Center were included.

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These reports also included a breakdown by Center and census tract of the type of program involvement. Other pertinent data such as age, sex, race, education, income and occupation were also collected and analyzed.

Chapter Two

The Base Expectancy Study

The base expectancy method in measuring the effects of intervention programs has been described by Wilkins. (1965)

> This method provides estimates of the expected outcome in terms of input factors. The method is completely general. It can be used to predict the outcome of individual treatment or, . . .to determine the expected rate of delinquency in an area in terms of the social, economic, and other factors known about areas. Instead of matching in respect to those variables expected(intuitively) to have an influence on the outcome, the factors associated with variations in the output are determined empirically, then transformed into equations which (given that there is sufficient information) estimate the nature of the variation in the output which is due to variations in the input. . . .If the data are adequate, it would be possible to sort out the variations in delinquency rates within the 'target' area due to general social changes and those due to social action.

As indicated earlier, the base expectancy method was to be used to determine the effect of program intervention on predicted delinquency. Members of the adolescent cohort, which is discussed in detail in Chapter III of this report, were to be assigned to risk groups. The test of treatment, i.e., program intervention effect, was to be determined by the extent to which the adolescent cohort "beat the odds" established by the predictive index.

In the original research design, samples were to be drawn from the total enumerated populations of 17-and 20-year-old youth who at the ages of 14 and 17 lived in the target area. Data were to be obtained from public school records, public welfare and court records. The relevant variables for the development of base expectancies were outlined:

1. Arrest Record
2. School Attendance Information
3. School Performance Data
4. Intelligence Quotient
5. Welfare Status
6. Home Family Situation
7. Employment Status
8. Income
9. Residence Information, i.e., overcrowding, area, mobility, etc.
10. Physical Health, i.e., type of illness, hospitalization, examination dates, etc.
11. Mental Health Information i.e., commitments, outpatient status, etc.
12. Sex
13. Race
14. Place of Birth
15. Other socio-economic factors hypothesized as being related to juvenile delinquency.

A pilot study was conducted to determine the feasability of developing a base expectancy from at least one of the three data sources. Permission was obtained from the Office of the Superintendent, District of Columbia Public Schools, to collect data in the target area schools. The outcome variables were to be anti-social behavior (delinquency) and maladaptive behavior (school dropout).

Method

Data were initially collected from school records on 62 school enrollees and 51 school dropouts. The enrollee sample was randomly selected from the total population of 17 year olds attending Cardozo High School. The dropout sample was selected from the school's 1964-65 and 1963-64 dropout lists. The records were traced to determine the status of the youth at 14 years of age. All relevant data at this age level were recorded on a data collection form developed by the net impact staff.

The data collection instrument included the variables summarized below:

Known Characteristics of the Seventeen Year Old Enrollee and Dropout at Age Fourteen

Characteristics	(N=62) Enrollee	(N=51) Dropouts
1. Academic Track*		4
a. Basic		4
b. Regular		1
c. General		2
d. Social Adjustment		2
e. College Preparatory		1
f. Ungraded		1
g. No Information		1
2. Cumulative Average Deportment Grades		
a. B and above	37	16
b. C and below	22	27
c. No Information	3	8
3. Cumulative Average Grade		
a. C and above	51	31
b. D and below	11	20
4. Total Days Absent		
a. 10 or more	27	28
b. 9 or less	35	23
5. Standardized Test Results		
a. (Science Research Association Test) of Educational Ability		
i. 21 %ile and above	14	9
ii. 20 %ile and below	20	19
b. Differential Aptitude Test		
i. 21 %ile and above	18	4
ii. 20 %ile and below	20	16
iii. No Information	24	31

* Academic track data was discernable from the class section to which a youth had been assigned. Track data is not reported on all cases because at the time of data collection the sections were undergoing review.

Characteristics	(N=62) Enrollees	(N=51) Dropouts
6. Number of transfers		
a. 1 or less	53	40
b. 2 or more	9	11
7. Family Status		
a. Broken Home	23	36
b. Intact Home	39	15
8. Parental Status		
a. Parent (s)	61	47
b. Guardian (s)	1	4
9. Father's Occupation		
a. Skilled	22	12
b. Unskilled	25	12
c. No Information	15	27
10. Mother's Occupation		
a. Skilled	13	5
b. Unskilled	40	35
c. No Information	9	11
11. Source of Income		
a. Employment	50	27
b. Public Welfare	0	3
c. No Information	12	21
12. Place of Birth		
a. District of Columbia	45	38
b. Other	12	13
c. No Information	5	
13. Number of Siblings		
a. Two or less	29	30
b. Three or more	33	21

In order to determine the relationship between these two samples chi square analyses utilizing 2 x 2 contigency tables were run. Only the chi square statistic (X^2) which yielded a value at or beyond the .05 level that a significant difference between observed and expected frequencies would occur 95 times out of a 100, or would occur by chance only five times out of 100.

Results

Three of the independent variables yielded a chi square (X^2) value which showed the observed frequency to differ significantly from the expected frequency at or beyond the .05 level of confidence. The three variables are: (1) broken homes; (2) cumulative scholastic grade average; and (c) cumulative deportment grade average. A fourth variable, the composite Verbal Reasoning and Numerical Ability score of the Differential Aptitude Test, approached significance at the .50 level and was included in the multiple regression equation.

Further analyses were carried out to determine the strength of association of these variables with school status (enrolled vs dropout). The multiple regression analysis yielded a coefficient of multiple determination R^2= .210 (r=.456). The coefficient of determination (R2) indicates 21 percent of shared variance with the dependent variable. This means that 21 percent of the factors which are associated with the dropout status of these subjects is accounted for by the independent variables in the multiple correlation. It is possible to calculate the increase in predictive efficiency gained by knowledge of the correlations of these independent variables with the dependent variables. In this case the increase is 11.5 percent which means that 11.5 percent fewer errors will be made in predicting with this regression equation than would be made in predictions based simply on the known dependent variable means in the population.

More specifically, about 70 percent of the present population stay in school and 30 percent drop out. Assuming that this same proportion is present in the cohort population, simply sorting these into a 70-30 proportion on a basis of random selection would produce an error about 50 percent of the time. By using this regression equation, this error is reduced by 11.5 percent which is a significant increase in precision.

Further, since the phi coefficient, a statistical technique used in this analysis, underestimates the precision available from these data, the amount of increase latent in these data is considerably greater than reported here.

Summary and Conclusions

The original design called for work to begin on the development of base expectancy tables. These tables were to be used to make predictions of delinquent behavior for the youth in the target area population generated on the basis of expectations derived from current and past experience on a 17-year-old population. These were to be used as a baseline in evaluating possible effects of program intervention in changing outcome. Youth who had certain characteristics, i.e., came from broken homes, were school dropouts, had developed patterns of truancy to be classified into medium, high, or low risk categories. It was hypothesized that if the United Planning Organization programs were effective in reducing juvenile delinquency, the predictions generated from these data would not hold.

A pilot study was conducted to determine whether data recorded in the Public School records could be used in the establishment of a base expectancy. Data were collected from the school records of 62 current school enrollees and 51 school dropouts. All of the youth included in this pilot study were 17 years of age and all were either currently enrolled in, or had dropped out of, the Cardozo High School. The resulting data included selected variables which were hypothesized to be indicators of school performance and dropout behavior. Retrospective data were collected and recorded on these variables for these youth at the time when they were age 14. The results of the analysis of these data are not definitive.

The development of the base expectancy, therefore, must be considered to be in the first phase. It is clear that of the many sets of data describing the original population of this study, at least three and possibly four are capable of sharply discriminating between those subjects who dropped out of school and those who did not. A stable, if not large portion, of the variation between those who do and those who do not drop out has been identified.

It is significant that the multiple correlation generated by these data is as high as .456, despite the spurious factors still present in the data. The fact that such a complex phenomenon as dropout status can be predicted with this degree of precision in a preliminary effort demonstrates the need for continued work in this area.

These preliminary efforts represent a major step in the direction of identifying the characteristics of the potential dropout and the potential delinquent in the Cardozo School District.

Chapter Three

The Adolescent Cohort: A Study of Delinquency Prevention

The components of the comprehensive United Planning Organization target area program funded by the President's Committee on Youth Crime and Delinquency are directed toward the reduction of juvenile delinquency in the Cardozo School District.

In a recent study of the delinquency problem in the District of Columbia, it was reported that the city-wide delinquency rate was 29.2 per 1,000 youth, 10 to 17 years of age. The juvenile delinquency rate for the Cardozo School District was reported twice as high as the city-wide rate, 60.6 per 1,000 youth, 10 to 17 years of age.

Clark (1965) illustrates that this phenonmena is not just peculiar to Washington, D. C. He states:

> In St. Louis, a 1961 study of a ghetto area, 60 percent Negro, showed a delinquency rate three times that of the rest of the city. Another conducted in the greater Boston area in 1963 in a ghetto region one-quarter Negro, where almost all of Boston's Negroes live, showed four times the delinquency rate for Boston as a whole. In a Minneapolis ghetto area, in 1960, the delinquency rate was more than doubled that in the rest of the city. So was it in Cleveland's Hough area, predominantly Negro in 1961. In Syracuse, in 1962, in a ghetto community 80 percent Negro, the delinquency rate was also doubled. In 1962, the delinquency rate in Harlem was 109.3 per 1,000 population between the ages of seven and twenty, while in New York City as a whole for that same year the rate was 46.5. Consistently, for the previous ten years, the rate in Harlem was more than twice as high as that of the rest of the city.

During the fiscal year of 1962, over 2,300 youth were referred to the juvenile court in the District of Columbia. Only 12 percent of these youth were girls and less than 14 percent were white. While Negro youth constitute 86 percent of Juvenile Court referrals, they account for only two-thirds of the total number of youth in the 10 to 17 age category in the District of Columbia. The majority of the delinquent acts in the District of Columbia and in other urban areas are committed by Negro male youth, and this prevalence of delinquency among Negro youth is, therefore, disproportionate to their number in the total youth population.

Taking this at face value, however, tends to obscure other very important factors which must be considered in any serious attempt at studying the delinquency problem. First, as Clark has emphasized, it represents the behavior of a small segment of a population growing up in a ghetto community.

Other factors which must be considered have been pointed out by Willie et al., (1965). These researchers, in a recent study of delinquency among Negro youth in Washington, D. C., conclude that:

1. Socio-economic status is related to juvenile delinquency, i.e., the lower the socio-economic status of a neighborhood, the higher the delinquency rate.
2. Family instability is related to juvenile delinquency, i.e., the higher the proportion of broken families in a neighborhood, the greater the juvenile delinquency rate.
3. Half or more of the variance in the distribution of delinquency rates by neighborhoods may be attributed to the multiple effects of poverty and family disorganization.
4. No association exists between race and juvenile delinquency that is not accounted for by differences in socio-economic and family status exhibited by white and nonwhite populations.

Such findings tend to be peculiar not just to Washington, D. C. For example, Palmore (1963) conducted a retrospective cohort study of a known group of lower-class juvenile in New Haven. This research controlled for class and region, and reports results similar to those reported by Willie et al., with respect to race as well as dropout behavior.

Palmore, does, however, report a significant association between delinquency _per se_ and other individual characteristics, i.e., Negro, male, low intelligence and school dropout. He also reported a significant relationship between delinquency and characteristics of deviant families, i.e., illegitimacy, absent parents and delinquent siblings.

At another level, residence in public housing and high delinquency rate neighborhoods is associated with delinquency. The characteristics of the individual, the deviant families and the deviant community are considered indicators of access to illegitimate opportunities that increase delinquency rates, according to Palmore.

As previously reported, the preliminary results obtained in establishing a base expectancy in the Net Impact Study showed an association between broken homes, cumulative scholastic grade average, cumulative deportment grade averages and Differential Aptitude Test Scores.

Finding a relationship between delinquency and dropping out of school is no surprise and confirms the findings of other studies in this area. Ericson, et al., (1964 have pointed out how the school behavior is often used as part of the definition of official delinquency. They state that the failure to adjust well in school is taken into consideration by courts making decisions about the youth.

Empirical evidence in the literature on juvenile delinquency tends to indicate an association between delinquency and sex, intelligence, school status, school achievement and impoverished neighborhoods. Kahn (1963) has summarized these studies as follows:

> While many of the existing studies tend to limit themselves to unrepresentative populations and do not distinquish between describing and explaining delinquency, the accumulated evidence in the descriptive realm is relatively consistent. Delinquents usually come from impoverished, disorganized, changing neighborhoods, and from broken or disrupted family backgrounds. Many derive from ethnic or social backgrounds in which the family, as it is generally defined on the American scene, does not exist and often has never existed. Many delinquents are cast out by, or emancipate themselves from, their families at a very young age and are not subject to parental discipline, control or percept. They often live in neighborhoods in which there are few social controls and moral standards that might inhibit antisocial activity. Indeed in recent years a group of scholars have shown that the family and other primary institutions are replaced as sources of standards, values, goals, and behavior for these young people by a so-called "delinquent subculture" that is transmitted in some neighborhoods in antisocial peer groups.

Since the empirical evidence is so overwhelming it seems appropriate for research efforts aimed at solutions to the delinquency problem to move to another level of inquiry. Cloward and Ohlin (1961) have assumed in their inquiry the existence of delinquent sub-cultures. They state specifically," . . . we shall exclude from our purview acts of delinquency that are committed by isolated individuals, or by members of groups in which delinquents are not prescribed."

These authors equate delinquent gangs with delinquent subcultures. They describe three distinctive kinds of delinquent subcultures.

> One is what we call the "criminal subculture"--a type of gang which is devoted to theft, extortion, and other illegal means of securing income. A second is the "conflict subculture" --a type of gang in which the manipulation of violence predominates as a way of winning status. The third is the "retreatist subculture"--a type of gang in which the consumption of drugs is stressed. These three patterns of subcultural delinquency not only involve different styles of life for their members but also present very different problems for control and prevention. They rise by different processes and in different parts of the social structure. They impose distinctive beliefs, values, and prescriptions for action on their members. But all three are alike in that the norms which guide the behavior of members run counter to the norms of the larger society.

The United Planning Organization approach is one which attempts to reduce juvenile delinquency through a series of programs designed to ameliorate the socio-economic circumstances of members of the target population. The United Planning Organization sees this as the most appropriate point of intervention in the prevention of delinquency.

The major research concern then becomes one of determining the extent to which this "comprehensive" program does, in fact, reduce the incidence of juvenile delinquency. Another research concern, is one of testing and developing theoretical and conceptual models related to the kind of juvenile delinquency found in the Cardozo School District. Foth of these concerns lead to a number of interrelated hypotheses. In the first instance, the null hypothesis is that there will be no program effect on the reduction of juvenile delinquency. In the second instance, an appropriate test would be one of determining the existence of a delinquent subculture as defined by Cloward and Ohlin.

It was pointed out in an earlier Chapter of this report that the use of ecological data in studying the impact of target area programs can be misleading. For example, delinquency rates may, in fact, increase as a result of program effectiveness. If the programs are truly effective, the original target population may be replaced by a new and more "hard-core" population. Similarly, as Clark (1965) has pointed out, the community action programs may act to "shore up the ego structure of the ghetto residents," resulting in a temporary increase in overt acts which may be classified as delinquent acts.

Rationale

The design of this study called for the selection of two adolescent cohorts of 300 each. The selection criteria were to have been based on the risk categories established in the base expectancies. In addition, to those mentioned in Chapter II regarding the development of the base expectancy, several other factors precluded the use of the base expectancy. The length of time required to develop the pilot base expectancy, the availability of staff, problems in getting access to institutional records, and the need to select a cohort before all target area programs became operative caused delays. In retrospect, the decision to move forward in the selection of the cohort proved to be of value because of the outcome of the pilot expectancy itself, and the fact that institutional records were more accessible at the time that the data were being collected for the base expectancy.

In the present study, therefore, an attempt was made to determine the extent to which selected individual, family and neighborhood factors, which have been documented in the literature as being associated with juvenile delinquency, differentiate between selected groups of institutionalized and non-institutionalized youth from the Cardozo School District.

It was reasoned that the making of such a determination would be of value in the identification of vulnerable youth. Once such an identification is made, intervention efforts could become more focused.

Further, it was also hypothesized that home and institutional status would be directly related to the youth's knowledge of, and response to intervention efforts.

Method

A population projection, based on the 1960 census data, indicated that a total of 1,242 fourteen-year-old youth and a total of 947 seventeen-year-old youth live in the 18 census tracts of the target area. (These estimates were based on the number of youth in the ten-and thirteen-year-old age category in 1960). A precoded data collection instrument was developed for the purpoee of enumerating these two populations. A combined total of 1644 youth were enumerated. This figure represents 63.9 percent (677) of the estimated 17-year-old population and 77.8 percent (967) of the estimated 14-year-old population. Data on current school status were obtained on the youth born during the years 1947 and 1950, respectively. Data were collected on the in-school and dropout populations at both public and parochial schools.

Enumeration of the institutionalized 14-and 17-year-old populations was conducted at the D. C. Children's Center, The National Training School for Boys and the District's Youth Center. Further enumeration of school dropouts and those youth in the labor force was conducted using the records of the United Planning Organization Youth Employment Counseling Center.

A random sample of 569 was drawn, exclusive of the institutional population, from these two groups. In the case of the institutional group the total enumerated was included in the cohort. The sample included 310, 14-year-old youth and 315, 17-year-old youth. The distribution of the cohort drawn from these two age groups is presented in Table 1.

Table 1

Adolescent Cohort by Age, Census Tract

And Source of Enumeration

Census Tract	Source								Total
	School Public		Other School Sharpe, Terrell, Parochial, etc.		Youth Employment Counseling Center Dropout Lists		Institution Children's Center, Lorton, Nat'l Training School		
	14 yrs.	17yrs.	14yrs.	17yrs.	14yrs.	17yrs.	14yrs.	17yrs.	
27	6	10	2	3		2	2	1	26
28	14	13		3	3	1			34
29	21	16	1			3	1	2	44
30	11	9	1		1	1	1		24
31	21	16	1			3		1	42
32	32	17	1		4	3	2	2	61
35	14	12	1	1				1	29
36	22	22				7		2	53
37	2	11		2		6	1	1	23
39		1				2			3
43	5	8				4	2		19
44	19	13				1	3	2	38
45	12	6					2	1	21
48	25	26	1	1		2	6	7	68
49	40	26				3	5	6	80
50	21	23		1		2	2	2	51
52.1	2	5						1	8
52.2		1							1
Total	267	235	8	11	8	40	27	29	625

Instrument Development and Administration

The study design called for the development of methods for tracking the members of the adolescent cohort over a three-year-period. A pre-coded interview schedule was developed to collect baseline data on the cohort members. The data presented in this section of the report was collected utilizing this instrument. The original interview schedule was pretested on five 14-and five 17-year-old target area youth who were not members of the adolescent cohort.

Approximately fifty-five minutes were required to administer the interview schedule. Seventeen-year-old youth were asked additional questions concerning their school status when they were age 14. This was done in an effort to obtain information related to the establishment of a base expectancy table.

The adolescent oohort interviews were conducted by six team of interviewers consisting of an average of four persons per team. All of the membersof these teams were exposed to a two-day training program.

The content of the two-day training program is indicated below:

a. The Net Impact Study: An explanation of the purpose of the Net Impact Study.

b. A Description of the Cardozo Target Area: A description of the social, economic, educational and physical characteristics of the people who live in the target area.

c. The Use of the Adolescent Cohort Questionnaire: Each item of the questionnaire was discussed along with instructions on how the item was to be asked.

d. Interviewing Techniques: Points on how to approach, establish rapport with and interview the cohort members were included. Tapes of previous interviews were also used in this aspect of the training.

e. Ethical Standards: Confidentiality and safeguarding information that had been obtained from interviewees was stressed.

After completing these orientation sessions the team members conducted interviews with each other in role-play situations.

Coding and Intercoder Reliability

Most of the items of the interview schedule were precoded. In order to code the remaining open-ended items, it was necessary to first establish categories. A one-tenth sample of the total number of completed interviews was selected for this purpose. The answers of the respondents served to establish the general categories for the open items.

Five persons were responsible for coding the total interview. Intercoder reliability of these five coders was established through two procedures: percent agreement and the use of analysis of variance. The results of these two procedures are presented in Table 2.

Table 2

Inter-Coder Agreement on

a Random Selection of Item

	Percent Agreement Among Coders												
Person	Age	Place of	Father Living	Father Marital Status	Sisters	Neighbor-hood	Church Attend-ance	Success in Life	Family Income	Gives Reward	Discuss Educa-tion	Subject Enjoy	Mean % Agree-ment
A	100	80	100	100	100	100	80	40	60	100	100	100	88.3
B	100	60	100	100	100	60	80	40	80	100	100	100	85
C	100	40	100	100	100	100	100	100	80	100	60	100	90
D	100	60	100	100	100	100	100	40	100	80	80	100	88.3

It can be seen in the above table that in all cases the mean percent agreement among coders was at least 88.3 percent. In coding the responses of Person C, there was 90 percent agreement. On factual items, such as age, the father's occupation, number of siblings, etc., there was consistent agreement between coders.

The reliability estimate of the five coders was taken one step further. The five coders were asked to rate each member of a group of three on the specific characteristics of the subject's interpretation of a successful life. Even though there was a statistically significant difference between the respondent's answers (between people), the difference between the raters was not statistically significant. The estimate of reliability of the average of the five ratings made on each of the three respondents was 96 percent.

A total of 455 or 72 percent of the total 625 youth included in this adolescent cohort were interviewed. Twelve of the youth interviewed in this adolescent cohort were white. The summary below is a further breakdown of these youth with respect to sex and interview status.

Interview Status	Males	Females	Total
Interviewed	255	200	455
In Armed Services	5		5
Out of Town	4	4	8
Uncooperative	7	3	10
Unresponsive to contact attempts	9	12	21
Addresses Unknown	70	53	123
Deceased	2		2
Recent Institutionalization	1		
Totals	353	272	625

The variable, broken home, has been hypothesized to be related to juvenile delinquency. A comparison was made on this variable for the youth interviewed in this study. (See Table 3). Inspection of this data presented in this table indicates that 223 or 51.4 percent of the total population come from intact homes, while 211, or 48.6 percent of the total population live in broken homes. Of the total number of youth interviewed and included in the data analyses, 55 or 12.6 percent are currently in institutions.

Table 3

Adolescents Interviewed, by Home Status and Institutional Status

	Institutional Status					
	Non-Institutional		Institutional		Total	
Home Status	N	%	N	%	N	%
Intact Home	202	53.3	21	38.2	223	51.4
Broken Home	177	46.7	34	61.8	211	48.6
Total	379	100	55	100	434*	100

*Twenty-one of the total 455 persons interviewed were not included in the data analyses because they were interviewed after the final analyses had begun.

A slightly higher percentage of the institutional population, 61.8 percent are from broken homes than is the case for the non-institutionalized population (46.7 percent). The difference, however, is not statistically significant. This indicated that the two samples were drawn from a common population with respect to this variable.

Individual Characteristics

Table 4 includes information of the distribution of institutionalized and non-institutionalized members of the adolescent cohort by home status and sex. Examination of the data on this table indicates that 57.4 percent or 249 of the youth interviewed for this study were male, while

42.6 percent or 185 were females. Eight of the 55 institutionalized cases were females, of these, six come from non-intact families. There were 47 male youth in institutions, 28 or 59 percent came from non-intact or broken homes.

Table 4

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutionalized				Institutionalized					
	Broken Home		Intact		Broken Home		Intact		Total	
Home Status	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	98	55.4	104	51.5	28	82.4	19	90.5	249	57.4
Female	79	44.6	98	48.5	6	17.6	2	9.5	185	42.6
Total	177	100	202	100	34	100	21	100	434	100

The current educational status of these youth is presented in Table 5. Inspection of this table reveals that only one of the institutionalized youth had finished high school as compared with 41 of the non-institutionalized youth. The preponderance of these youth, as would be expected, are currently enrolled in school. Those youth who graduated did so in June 1965. Of those who had dropped out of school, proportionately more who come from broken homes have dropped out of school. For the institutionalized population, the school dropout behavior was started as early as the 6th grade, while the non-institutionalized youth did not begin to show this behavior until the 7th grade. Of the 434 youth, 102 or slightly better than 23 percent are school dropouts, 48 of the dropouts are non-institutionalized.

Table 5

Adolescents Interviewed by Institutional Status,

Home Status and Education

		Institutional Status									
		Non-Institutionalized				Institutionalized					
	Education	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Enrolled In	Finished	17	9.6	24	11.9	0		1	4.8	42	9.7
	12th	20	11.3	23	11.4	0		0		43	9.9
	11th	16	9.0	27	13.4	0		0		43	9.9
	10th	25	14.1	31	15.3	0		0		56	12.9
	9th	24	13.6	44	21.8	0		0		68	15.7
	8th	29	16.4	23	11.4	0		0		52	12.0
	7th	13	7.3	11	5.4	0		0		24	5.5
	6th	4	2.2	0		0		0		4	.9
Dropped Out	12th	3	1.7	4	2.0	0		0		7	1.6
	11th	8	4.5	6	3.0	0		0		14	3.2
	10th	2	1.1	0		2	5.8	0		4	.9
	9th	8	4.5	6	2.9	2	5.8	2	9.5	18	4.1
	8th	7	4.0	1	.5	5	14.7	1	4.8	14	3.2
	7th	1	.6	2	.9	13	38.2	12	57.1	28	6.5
	6th	0		0		5	14.7	2	9.5	7	1.6
	5th	0		0		7	20.6	3	14.3	10	2.3
	Total	177	99.9	202	99.8	34	99.8	21	100.0	434	99.9

An analysis of variance was conducted on the educational data. The summary of the findings obtained through this procedure are presented in Table 6 below. A significant difference is found to exist between the home status, institutional status and grade level. Only in the case of the institutionalized youth belonging to the intact family and the institutionalized youth coming from broken homes was the difference not statistically significant.

The mean educational level of the non-institutionalized population, 10th grade, was significantly higher (probability level less than .01) than the mean educational level, seventh grade, of the institutional population.

Table 6

Summary of F Ratios Obtained on Home Status,

Institutional Status and Education

	Institutional Status			
	Non-Institutional		Institutional	
Home Status	Broken Home (m= 9.4)	Intact Home (10.6)	Broken Home (m=7.1)	Intact Home (m=8.5)
Non-Institutional				
Intact	7.27*		401.2*	201.8*
Non-Intact			234.9*	118.2*
Institutional				
Intact			N.S.	

* F Ratio significant at.05 level of probability or less

A comparison was made between the institutional and non-institutional population on home status and cumulative scholastic grade. The results of this comparison are presented in Table 7. Examination of these data reveals that the highest proportion of youth in the total population have an average cumulative grade of C.

When a comparison was made between the mean cumulative average grade for those youth on whom this information was available from public school or institutional records, a statistically significant difference was found. The mean average scholastic grade for the non-institutional population was closer to the letter grade D.

Table 7

The Institutional and Non-Institutional Population

by Home Status and Cumulative Average Scholastic Grade

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Cumulative Grade Average										
A	1	.6	3	1.5	0	-	0	-	4	.9
B	27	15.3	36	17.8	1	2.9	1	4.8	65	15.0
C	56	31.6	79	39.1	4	11.8	2	9.5	141	32.5
D	27	15.3	35	17.3	3	8.8	5	23.8	70	16.1
F	8	4.5	4	2.0	1	2.9	0	-	13	3.0
No information	58	32.8	45	22.3	25	73.5	13	61.9	141	32.5
Total	177	100	202	100	34	100	21	100	434	100

Table 8 shows the distribution of the population by home status, institutional status and school achievement percentile test scores. The data on the institutional population were too scant for statistical testing. Examination of the data on the non-institutional population, in Table 8 shows that a higher proportion of these youth are in the 51st to 79th percentile range. The majority of these youth score below the 79th percentile.

Table 8

The Population by Home Status, Institutional Status

and School Achievement %ile Test Score

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
School Achievement	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
%ile Rank										
0 - 5	1	1.9	2	3.2	0	-	0	-	3	2.5
6 - 20	2	3.8	4	6.3	1	.25	1	.50	8	6.6
21 - 50	15	28.8	19	30.2	2	.50	0	-	36	29.8
51 - 79	22	42.3	27	42.8	0	-	0	-	49	40.4
80 - 94	8	15.4	8	12.7	1	.25	1	.50	18	14.8
95 - 100	4	7.7	3	4.8	0	-	0		7	5.8
Total	52	99.9	63	100	4	100	2	100	121	99.9

The youth were asked to state what they would like to be, when they are older. The distribution of their responses to this question is presented in Table 9.

Table 9

The Institutional and Non-Institutional Population

by Home Status and Occupational Aspirations

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Occupational Aspirations	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Other	6	3.4	11	5.4	3	8.8	1	4.8	21	4.8
Professional	91	51.4	107	53.0	11	32.4	6	28.6	215	49.5
Managerial	6	3.4	3	1.5	2	5.9	1	4.8	12	2.8
Clerical	29	16.4	38	16.3	2	5.9	0	-	64	14.7
Craftsman	19	10.7	27	13.4	12	35.3	8	38.0	66	15.2
Services	8	4.5	9	4.5	1	2.9	1	4.8	19	4.4
Housewife	2	1.1	2	1.0	1	2.9	0	-	5	1.1
Uncertain	16	9.0	10	4.9	2	5.9	4	19.0	32	7.4
Total	177	99.9	202	100.0	34	100.0	21	100.0	434	99.9

Table 9

The Institutional and Non-Institutional Population by Home Status and Occupational Aspirations

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Occupational Aspirations	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Other	6	3.4	11	5.4	3	8.8	1	4.8	21	4.8
Professional	91	51.4	107	53.0	11	32.4	6	28.6	215	49.5
Managerial	6	3.4	3	1.5	2	5.9	1	4.8	12	2.8
Clerical	29	16.4	38	16.3	2	5.9	0	-	64	14.7
Craftsman	19	10.7	27	13.4	12	35.3	8	38.0	66	15.2
Services	8	4.5	9	4.5	1	2.9	1	4.8	19	4.4
Housewife	2	1.1	2	1.0	1	2.9	0	-	5	1.1
Uncertain	16	9.0	10	4.9	2	5.9	4	19.0	32	7.4
Total	177	99.9	202	100.0	34	100.0	21	100.0	434	99.9

Table 9 shows that proportionately more of the youth who are non-institutionalized set their occupational aspirations in the professional areas. The picture is less clear for the institutionalized population. For the youth from broken homes, who are currently institutionalized, the tendency is to set their occupational aspirations at the craftsman and professional levels. A similar picture exists for the youth who are institutionalized and come from intact homes. Six of the 21 youth who are institutionalized and from intact families set their occupational aspirations at the professional level and four have uncertain or ill-defined occupational aspirations. For the total population, a preponderance have professional aspirations. The next highest proportion of the youth hope to be craftsman or clerical workers. Thirty-two (7.3 percent) of the 434 youth interviewed had ill-defined or uncertain occupational aspirations.

These youth were asked what they thought their chances were for obtaining their occupational aspirations. Table 10 shows that most youth felt that their chances were either "even" or better than "even". Only 62 or 14.3 percent of these adolescents felt that their chances were poor, very poor or they were uncertain. Proportionately more of the youth from the non-institutionalized broken homes feel uncertain, or that their chances are poor, for achieving the occupational aspirations they had set for themselves. Proportionately fewer of the non-institutionalized intact family youth feel this uncertainty about their occupational aspirations. A comparison between the institutionalized and non-institutionalized populations on this variable revealed no statistically significant differences.

Table 10

The Institutional and Non-Institutional Population by Home Status and Perception of Chance in Achieving Occupational Goals

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Chances of Attaining Occupational Aspirations	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very good	25	14.1	40	19.8	10	29.4	4	19.1	79	18.2
Good	54	30.5	84	41.6	9	26.5	6	28.6	153	35.3
Even	66	37.3	56	27.7	10	29.4	8	38.1	140	32.3
Poor	6	3.4	12	5.9	3	8.8	0	-	21	4.8
Very Poor	10	5.7	5	2.5	1	2.9	1	4.8	17	3.9
Uncertain	16	9.0	5	2.5	1	2.9	2	9.5	24	5.5
Total	177	100	202	100	34	100	21	100	434	100

The 434 youth interviewed in this study were asked what social class they would like most to belong when they become adults. Table 11 reveals that 48.4 percent of the total youth interviewed, hoped to be middle class. One hundred and fourteen, or 26.3 percent, of these youth hoped to be upper class.

Proportionately more of the youth who aspire to be in the upper class are those youth who are currently instiutionalized and come from broken homes. The next highest group of youth who hoped to be upper class are the non-institutionalized youth who live in the intact home situations (30.7 percent of all of the youth are in this category). Of the 101 youth who set their class aspirations at the working class level, proportionately more come from broken homes and are currently institutionalized. The next highest proportion of this category are youth coming from broken homes and are non-institutionalized. When the responses of the total non-institutionalized sample was compared with the responses of the total institutionalized population, the difference was not statistically significant.

Table 11

Institutional Status, Family Status and Social Class Aspirations

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Social Class Aspiration	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Working	45	25.4	40	19.8	12	35.3	4	19.1	101	23.3
Middle	89	50.3	100	49.5	10	29.4	11	52.4	210	48.4
Upper	36	20.3	62	30.7	12	35.3	4	19.1	114	26.3
Uncertain	7	3.9	0	-	0	-	2	9.5	9	2.1
Total	177	100	202	100	34	100	21	100	434	100

Table 12

The Non-Institutional and Institutional
Youth by Home Status and Whether
They have One or More Friends
With Whom They Associate

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
One or more friends	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	162	91.5	193	95.5	33	97.1	20	95.2	408	94.0
No	15	8.5	9	4.5	1	2.9	1	4.8	26	6.0
Total	177	100.0	202	100.0	34	100.0	21	100.0	434	100.0

The youth who reported having friends were asked the number of friends in their group. Table 13 shows that of the 408 who responded "yes" to this question, 177 or 43.3 percent report that they have two or three close friends. When an analysis of variance was conducted to determine the relationship between the number of persons in the peer group, home and institutional status, no significant difference was found on any of the comparisons. Inspection of the data presented in this table does reveal, however, that proportionately more of the youth, who are currently institutionalized and come from broken homes have two or three friends. Proportionately more of the youth in intact homes, who are not institutionalized report having four or five friends.

Table 13

Institutional and Non-Institutional Youth by Home Status and the Number of Friends in the Groups

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Instiutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact			
Number of friends in Group	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Two or more	74	45.7	77	39.9	17	51.5	9	45.0	177	43.4
Four or five	25	15.4	52	26.9	3	9.1	4	20.0	84	20.6
Six or Seven	17	10.5	16	8.3	2	6.1	2	10.0	37	9.0
Eight or Nine	9	5.6	4	2.1	1	3.0	2	10.0	16	3.9
Ten or more	37	22.8	44	22.8	10	30.3	3	15.0	94	23.0
Total	162	100	193	100	33	100	20	100	408	100

The youth were asked how often did their friends get together. The distribution of their responses to this question are presented in Table 14. A high proportion of their responses 47.5 percent, or 194 of the 408 youth with friends, reported meeting their friends everyday.

When an analysis of variance was conducted on these data, a significant difference was also found to exist for the comparison made between the institutionalized broken home youth and the non-institutionalized intact home youth. A significant difference was also found between the institutionalized broken home youth and the non-institutionalized intact home youth. Inspection of the data presented in this table shows that proportionately more youth from broken homes, who are currently institutionalized tend to meet with their friends everyday when they were non-institutionalized. In no instances was the frequency of meeting with their friends less than once or twice a week.

Table 14

The Non-Institutional and Institutional Youth

by Home Status and Frequency of Meetings

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Frequency of Meeting with Friends	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Everyday	78	48.1	80	41.5	21	63.6	15	75.0	194	47.5
3,4, or 5 times a week	34	21.0	37	19.2	9	27.3	2	10.0	82	20.1
Once or twice a week	40	24.7	59	30.6	3	9.1	2	10.0	104	25.5
Twice a month	8	4.9	9	4.7	0	-	1	5.0	18	4.4
Once a month Or less	2	1.2	8	4.1	0	-	0	-	10	2.5
Total	162	100	193	100	33	100	20	100	408	

The youth were asked if their meeting with friends were planned or unplanned. A high proportion, 65.4 percent, or 267 of the 408 responding to this item, report that meetings are unplanned. A slightly higher proportion of the institutionalized youth from intact homes report having planned meetings than do any of the other three groups.

Table 15

The Non-Institutional and Institutional Youth by Home Status and Type of Meeting

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Meetings are:	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Planned	53	32.7	67	34.7	13	39.4	8	40.0	141	34.6
UnPlanned	109	67.3	126	65.3	20	60.6	12	60.0	267	65.4
Total	162	100	193	100	33	100	20	100	408	100

The youth were asked, whether they had ever been arrested for breaking the law. Ten percent or 18 of the 177 youth living in broken homes who are not currently in an institution report having been arrested. Similarly eight percent or 17 of the 202 youth who are non-institutionalized and from intact homes report having been arrested.

Table 16 lists the types of offenses for which these youth were arrested. Inspection of the data presented in this table indicates that the highest proportion were arrested for larceny offenses. The second largest category was disorderly conduct. Proportionately more of the youth from broken homes who are non-institutionalized were arrested for disorderly conduct and larceny. For the youth in the institutionalized population, the rank order of offenses are larceny, housebreaking and assault.

Table 16

The Institutional and Non-Institutional Youth

by Home Status and Type of Offense Committed

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Type of Offense Committed	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
None	159	89.8	185	91.6	0	-	0	-	344	79.3
Larceny	5	2.8	5	2.5	13	38.2	10	47.6	33	7.6
Housebreaking	4	2.3	2	.1	7	20.6	4	19.1	17	3.9
Truancy	2	1.1	2	.1	1	2.9	1	4.8	6	1.4
Auto Theft	1	.6	2	.1	1	2.9	1	4.8	14	3.2
Assault	0	-	2	.1	4	11.8	2	9.5	8	1.8
Drunk Driving	0	-	0	-	0	-	0	-	0	-
Disorderly Conduct	6	3.4	4	2.0	3	8.8	1	4.8	14	3.2
Rape or Attempted Rape	0	-	0	-	1	2.9	0	-	1	.2
Traffic violations	0	-	0	-	1	2.9	1	4.8	2	.5
Refuses Information	0	-	0	-	3	8.8	1	4.8	4	.9
Total	177	99.9	202	100.0	34	99.9	21	99.9	434	99.9

Table 17 shows the distribution of arrest outcome for the 35 non-institutionalized youth. Inspection of this table reveals that two of these youth had been committed to the Children's Center at Laurel; two had been placed in the Receiving Home; four had been fined; nine had been placed on probation; seven had the charges dropped against them; three were awaiting trial. The interviewers were unable to determine the disposition of five of these cases.

Table 17

Arrest Outcome of Non-Institutional Youth by Home Status

	Institutional Status					
	Non-Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Total	
Arrest Outcome	N	%	N	%	N	%
Not Applicable	159	89.8	185	91.6	344	90.8
Sentenced NTS or Lorton	2	1.1	1	.5	3	.8
Sentenced Laurel	0	-	2	1.0	2	.5
Receiving Home	0	-	2	1.0	2	.5
Fined	3	1.7	1	.5	4	1.1
Probation	6	3.4	3	1.5	9	2.4
Charges Dropped	4	2.3	3	1.5	7	1.9
Awaiting Trial	2	1.1	1	.5	3	.8
Disposition Unknown	1	.6	3	1.5	4	1.1
No Information	0	-	1	.5	1	.3
Total	177	99.9	202	100.0	379	100.0

Family Characteristics

The family income reported by the adolescent for the combined samples ranged from basic subsistence (families earning less than $3,000 per annum) to an approximate $16,000 per year. The median income for this population was $3,081.77.

The non-institutionalized adolescents report a median family income of $3,623.45. The institutionalized adolescents gave estimates of family income that yielded a median of $3,000.34. A test of significance was conducted for those youth reporting incomes above and below the group median yearly income of $3,081.77. The difference between the reported income of institutionalized and non-institutionalizedyouth was not statistically significant. Inspection of the data presented in Table 18 shows that 63 percent of the institutionalized cohort members reported an income of less than $3,599, while 49.8 percent of the non-institutionalized cohort reported an income of less than $3,599.

Table 18

Family Income of the Non-Institutional and Institutional Population*

	Institutional Status					
	Non-Institutional		Institutional		Total	
Income	N	%	N	%	N	%
$3,019 or less	115	42.4	14	51.9	129	43.3
3,020 - 3,599	20	7.4	3	11.1	23	7.7
3,600 - 4,079	10	3.7	1	3.7	11	3.7
4,080 - 4,599	13	4.8	0	-	13	4.4
4,560 - 5,039	21	7.7	2	7.4	23	7.7
5,040 - 5,519	8	2.9	0	-	8	2.7
5,520 - 5,999	20	7.4	1	3.7	21	7.0
6,000 - 7,199	19	7.0	3	11.1	22	7.4
7,200 - 8,399	17	6.3	1	3.7	18	6.0
8,400 - more	28	10.3	2	7.4	30	10.1
Total	271	99.9	27	100.0	298	100.0

*Income data were not available for 108 of the non-institutionalized and 28 of the institutionalized youth.

Comparisons were made on family income between institutional status, home status, and income. Statistically significant differences were found between: (1) institutionalized youth from intact homes and non-institutiona- youth from broken homes; and (2) institutionalized youth from broken homes and non-institutionalized youth from broken homes. Table 19 shows the distribution by home status and institutional status.

Table 19

Institutional And Non-Institutional Population by Home Status and Family Income

Home Status	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Family Income	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
$3,019 or less	69	39.0	46	22.8	12	35.3	2	9.5	129	29.7
3,020 - 3,599	10	5.6	10	4.9	3	8.8	0	-	23	5.3
3,600 - 4,079	5	2.8	5	2.5	0	-	1	4.8	11	2.5
4,080 - 4,599	6	3.4	7	3.5	0	-	0	-	13	3.0
4,560 - 5,039	7	4.0	14	6.9	1	2.9	1	4.8	23	5.3
5,040 - 5,519	3	1.7	5	2.5	0	-	0	-	8	1.8
5,520 - 5,999	8	4.5	12	5.9	1	2.9	0	-	21	4.8
6,000 - 7,199	7	4.0	12	5.9	0	-	3	14.3	22	5.1
7,200 - 8,399	4	2.3	13	6.4	0	-	1	4.8	18	4.1
8,400 - above	5	2.8	23	11.4	2	5.9	0	-	30	6.9
Unknown	53	29.9	55	27.2	15	44.1	13	61.9	136	31.3
Total	177	100.0	202	99.9	34	99.9	21	100.0	434	99.8

Table 20 shows a comparison between institutional status, home status and the number of siblings. Ninety-one percent of the youth interviewed have brothers and sisters. The median humber of siblings for the total population is 3.5 . Thirty-one or 56.3 percent of the institutionalized youth have four or more siblings. When a comparsion was made between the institutionalized population and the non-institutionalized population for those who had three or less siblings and those who had four or more siblings no statistically significant difference was found.

Table 20

The Institutional and Non-Institutional Population by Home Status and Number of Siblings

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Number of Siblings	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
0	14	7.9	21	10.4	1	2.9	2	9.5	38	8.8
1	21	11.9	26	12.9	3	8.8	2	9.5	52	12.0
2	32	18.1	27	13.4	9	26.5	2	9.5	70	16.1
3	26	14.7	28	13.9	4	11.8	1	4.8	59	13.6
4	26	14.7	19	9.4	6	17.7	5	23.8	56	12.9
5	20	11.3	25	12.4	3	8.8	1	4.8	49	11.3
6	13	7.3	24	11.9	2	5.9	4	19.0	43	9.9
7	10	5.7	14	6.9	4	11.8	2	9.5	30	6.9
8	4	2.3	9	4.5	1	2.9	2	9.5	16	3.7
9	5	2.8	3	1.5	0	-	0	-	8	1.8
10	2	1.1	1	.5	1	2.9	0	-	4	.9
11	2	1.1	1	.5	0	-	0	-	3	.7
12 or more	2	1.1	1	2.0	0	-	0	-	6	1.4
Total	177	99.9	202	99.9	34	99.9	21	99.6	434	99.9

Table 21 shows the distribution of the population with respect to the number of times they have moved within the last five years. A majority of these youth had moved once within the last five years. The youth in the institutional population had done significantly more moving than those in the non-institutional population. The mean for the non-institutionalized population was 1.68 moves in the last five years, while the mean for the institutionalized population was 2.38. Examination of the data presented in Table 21 shows that the distribution is essentially the same for the broken home group and the intact home group in the non-institutionalized population.

Table 21

The Non-Institutional and Institutional Population by Home Status and the Number of Times Moved in the Last Five Years

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Number of times moved	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	93	52.5	120	59.4	14	41.2	5	23.8	232	53.5
2	51	28.8	49	24.3	8	23.5	8	38.1	116	26.7
3	22	12.4	22	10.9	4	11.8	3	14.3	51	11.8
4	6	3.4	10	4.9	5	14.7	3	14.3	34	5 .5
5	4	2.3	1	.5	3	8.8	1	4.8	9	2.1
6	1	.6	0	-	0	-	0	-	1	.2
7	0	-	0	-	0	-	1	4.8	1	.2
Total	177	99.9	202	100.0	34	99.9	21	99.9	434	100.0

The adolescents in this sample were asked, how frequently do the members of your family (father, mother, sisters, and brothers) attend church. The frequency of the mothers' church attendance is presented in Table 22, which shows that 187 or 43 percent of the youth in this sample report that their mothers attend church once a week or more. The youth in the institutional population, irrespective of home status, report proportionately more frequent church attendance by their mothers than do the non-institutionalized youth.

Table 22

The Frequency of the Adolescents Mothers' Church Attendance by Institutional Status and Home Status

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Frequency of Church Attendance	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
2-3 times a week	15	8.5	19	9.4	4	11.8	0	-	38	8.8
Once a week	47	26.6	77	38.1	14	41.2	11	52.4	149	34.3
2-3 times a month	23	12.9	35	17.3	3	8.8	3	14.3	64	14.7
Once a month	17	9.6	11	5.5	2	5.9	1	4.8	31	7.1
Several times a year	12	6.8	12	5.9	1	2.9	1	4.8	26	6.0
Special occasions	18	10.2	17	8.4	3	8.8	2	9.5	40	9.2
Never	5	2.8	11	5.5	2	5.9	0	-	18	4.1
No information	40	22.6	20	9.9	5	14.7	3	14.2	68	15.7
Total	177	100.0	202	100.0	34	100.0	21	100.0	434	99.9

The youth were asked whether they thought that their families were close. The majority felt that their families were either very close or close. Only 8.76 percent (38 of these youth) thought that their families were not close. Table 23 presents these data. While no statistically significant difference was found between the institutionalized and non-institutionalized youth and their perception of family closeness, a very high proportion of the institutionalized youth who come from intact homes felt that their families were not very close.

Table 23

The Institutional and Non-Institutional Population by Home Status and Closeness of Family

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Intact	
Closeness of Family	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very Close	78	44.1	95	47.0	17	50.0	9	42.9	199	45.9
Close	80	42.2	94	46.5	16	47.1	1	4.8	191	44.0
Not Close	13	7.3	13	6.4	1	2.9	11	52.4	38	8.8
No information	6	3.4	0	-	0	-	0	-	6	1.4
Total	177	100.0	202	99.9	34	99.9	21	100.0	434	99.9

These youth were asked, whether they had seen their parents high or drunk. One-half of this population reported having seen their parents high or drunk. When examination of these data in Table 24 is made, it is found that proportionately more of the institutionalized youth coming from broken homes report having seen their parents high or drunk. The next highest proportion of youth who report having seen their parents drunk or high live in intact homes.

Table 24

The Non-Institutional and Institutional Youth by Home Status and Whether They had Observed Their Parents Drunk or High

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Reports seeing parents drunk or high	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	72	40.7	110	54.5	24	70.6	[illegible]	42.9	215	49.5
No	100	56.5	92	45.5	10	29.4	12	57.1	214	49.3
No information	5	2.8	0	-	0	-	0	-	5	1.1
Total	177	100.0	202	100.0	34	100.0	21	100.0	434	100.0

The youth were asked, how frequently they saw their parents high or drunk, Table 25 shows that 83 or 38.6 percent of the 215 youth interviewed who responded "yes" to the question report having seen their parents very frequently or frequently drunk or high. The majority of the youth, however, report seldom seeing this type of behavior. All of the institutionalized youth with intact families report having seen their parents very frequently drunk or high.

Table 25

The Non-Institutional and Institutional Youth by Home Status and Frequency of Seeing Their Parents Drunk or High

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Frequently seeing their parents drunk or high	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very frequently	10	13.9	15	13.6	4	16.7	9	100	38	17.7
Frequently	18	25.0	22	20.0	5	20.8	0	-	45	20.9
Seldom	41	56.9	70	63.6	15	62.5	0	-	126	58.6
No information	3	4.2	3	2.7	0	-	0	-	6	2.8
Total	72	100.0	110	100.0	24	99.9	9	100	215	99.9

The youth were asked, if any member of their families had been arrested for breaking the law. Table 26 shows that 158 (36.4 percent) of the total 434 youth interviewed indicated that members of their families had been arrested. Significantly more of the youth in the institutionalized population report this. When the non-institutionalized population was examined, proportionately more of the youth from broken homes had family members, who had been arrested.

Table 26

The Non-Institutional and Institutional Youth by Home Status and Law Violating Behavior of Family Members

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Family Members Arrested	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	56	31.6	54	26.7	30	88.2	18	85.7	158	36.4
No	117	66.1	148	73.3	3	8.8	2	9.5	270	62.2
No information	4	2.3	0	-	1	2.9	1	4.8	6	1.4
Total	177	100.0	202	100.0	34	100.0	21	99.9	434	100.0

These youth were asked, the type of offenses for which their family members had been arrested. The responses were categorized as to whether or not these offenses were felonies, misdemeanors, or both felonies and misdemeanors.

Table 27 shows that significantly more of the institutional youth had family members who had been arrested for felonies and/or misdemeanors.

Table 27

Non-Institutional and Institutional Youth by Home Status and Type of Offense Committed by Family Members

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Type of Offense	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Not Applicable	117	66.1	148	73.3	4	11.8	3	14.3	272	62.7
Misdemeanor	41	23.2	38	19.3	13	38.2	9	42.9	102	23.5
Felonies	4	2.3	7	3.5	3	8.8	2	9.5	116	3.7
Both felonies and misdemeanors	5	2.8	6	3.0	14	41.2	7	33.3	32	7.4
No information	10	5.7	2	1.0	0	-	0	-	12	2.8
Total	177	99.9	202	100.0	34	100.0	21	100.0	434	99.9

Neighborhood Characteristics

In table 28 is a comparison of the members of this adolescent cohort by institutional status, home status, census tract and juvenile delinquency rate. Census tracts 48 and 49 have the highest juvenile delinquency rates. Almost one-fourth of the 101 youth of the total cohort (23.3 percent) lived in these two high delinquency tracts. Thirty-seven or 20.9 percent of the total youth living in broken homes, who are non-instituionalized live in these two tracts. Forty-three (21.4 percent) of the non-institutionalized youth with intact families live in these two tracts. Fourteen (41.2 percent) of the youth in intact homes, who are institutionalized live in these two tracts and seven of the 21 (33.3 percent) of the youth from intact homes, who are currently institutionalized have home addresses in these two tracts. Fifty of the total number of youth interviewed live in the census tract 32, where the juvenile delinquency rate is 26.7 per 1000 youth 10 to 17 and is lower than the city average of 29.2 per 1000.

The Population by Institutional Status, Home Status, Census Tract and Juvenile Delinquency

Home Status		Institutional Status									
		Non-Institutional				Institutional					
		Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Census Tract	Juvenile Delinquency Rate	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
21*	26.4	1	.6	1	.5	0	-	0	-	2	.5
27	36.0	9	5.0	3	1.5	2	5.9	0	-	14	3.2
28	36.3	7	4.0	13	6.4	0	-	0	-	20	4.6
29	49.8	16	9.0	19	9.4	2	5.9	1	4.8	38	8.8
30	53.4	7	4.0	7	3.5	0	-	1	4.8	15	3.4
31	35.3	10	5.6	19	9.4	0	-	1	4.8	30	6.9
32	26.7	18	10.2	28	13.9	1	2.5	3	14.2	50	11.5
33	37.2	1	.6	1	.5	0	-	0	-	2	.5
35	36.2	7	4.0	12	5.9	1	2.9	1	4.7	21	4.8
36	46.1	13	7.3	16	7.9	2	5.9	1	4.7	32	7.5
37	60.9	3	1.7	6	3.0	1	2.9	2	9.5	12	2.8
39	36.8	0	-	1	.5	0	-	0	-	1	.2
43	67.3	7	4.0	2	.9	1	2.9	0	-	10	2.3
44	45.3	17	9.6	5	2.5	3	8.8	2	9.5	27	6.2
45	63.4	6	3.3	7	3.5	3	8.8	1	4.8	17	3.9
48	95.4	19	10.7	14	6.9	5	14.7	5	23.8	43	9.9
49	119.4	18	10.2	29	14.3	9	26.5	2	9.5	58	13.4
50	80.0	14	7.9	16	7.9	4	11.8	1	4.8	35	8.1
52.1	83.6	2	1.1	3	1.5	0	-	0	-	5	1.1
84*	46.0	2	1.1	0	-	0	-	0	-	2	.5
Total	1	177	100	202	99.9	34	99.9	21	100	434	100

* Six of the youth moved to these non-target area census tracts after the sample was drawn.

Table 29 shows selected socio-economic characteristics of the Cardozo School District. Inspection of the data presented in this table indicates that by comparison to the total area in census tracts 48, 49 and 50: (1) the median income is lower; (2) the percentage of overcrowded homes is higher; (3) the percentage of broken homes is higher; (4) the illegitimacy rates are higher; and (5) the overall socio-economic composite score is lower. These three tracts have three of the highest delinquency rates in the Cardozo School District. These are the tracts where 110 or 29 percent of the total non-institutionalized population and 26 or 47 percent of the total number of institutionalized youth live.

Table 29

Selected Characteristics of the Cardozo School District by Census Tract and Non-Institutionalized and Institutionalized Population

Census Tracts	Non-Institutionalized	Institutionalized Youth	Median Income of family and unrelated individuals[2]	Percent with 1.01 or more persons per room[3]	Percent 3 of children less than 18 yrs in non-2 parents families[4]	Socio-economic composite scores[5]	Percent Illegitimate Births[6]
27	12	2	$4,768	7.6	23.4	54	24.8
28	20	0	4,117	9.4	42.6	52	32.2
29	35	3	3,448	16.6	42.4	46	26.4
30	14	1	2,921	20.2	44.6	45	38.1
31	29	1	3,473	14.7	32.1	47	34.6
32	46	4	4,030	14.6	28.2	46	29.5
35	19	2	3,629	14.8	41.0	45	29.3
36	29	3	3,414	16.8	29.4	47	32.4
37	9	3	4,026	11.8	38.8	49	34.2
39	1	0	4,749	4.4	26.8	55	18.3
43	9	1	3,142	9.8	38.9	45	40.6
44	22	5	2,607	46.2	46.2	40	41.7
45	13	4	2,609	15.9	61.7	42	46.2
48	33	10	2,453	27.2	40.8	34	39.1
49	47	11	2,457	26.3	47.6	36	42.6
50	30	5	2,883	46.1	45.4	43	42.9
52.1	5	0	3,847	10.5	38.7	50	29.4
52.2			5,471	13.5	18.0	59	
Averages			3,563	16.4	38.1	46	34.3

1. Six of the non-institutional youth had moved out of the target area.
2. Median family and unrelated individuals income-1960 U. S. Census.
3. Percent of housing units with more than 1.01 persons per room-1960 U.S. Census.
4. Percent of children under 18 in non-two parent families- U. S. Census.
5. Socio-economic composite scores-UPO-WAY Report- 1964 (Derived from computations on five highly correlated variables taken from 1960 Census. The variables are: (1) percent of operatives, service workers and laborers; (2) median school years completed by persons over 25 years of age; (3) estimated market value of owned homes; (4) the gross monthly rental for tenant-occupied dwellings; and (5) percent of sound dwellings.
6. Percent of illegitimate births per 100 live births-1964 Vital Statistics-Department of Public Health, D. C.

United Planning Organization Intervention

The 434 youth interviewed in this study were asked if they had heard of the United Planning Organization. Inspection of the data presented in Table 30 reveals that 243 or 55.9 percent of the total number of youth interviewed had heard of the United Planning Organization. More of the non-institutionalized group youth had heard of the United Planning Organization than the youth in the institutionalized group.

Table 30

The Non-Institutionalized and Institutionalized Youth by Home Status and Their Knowledge of UPO

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Heard of UPO	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	109	61.6	111	55.0	15	44.1	8	38.1	243	55.9
No	64	36.2	86	42.6	19	55.9	13	61.9	182	41.9
No information	4	2.3	5	2.5	0	-	0	-	9	2.1
Total	177	100.0	202	100.0	34	100.0	21	100.0	434	99.9

The 243 youth who had indicated that they had heard of the United Planning Organization, were asked if they had ever been involved in UPO programs. Fifty of these youth (20.6 percent) report that they have been involved in UPO programs (see Table 31).

Table 31

The Non-Institutionalized and the Institutionalized Youth by Home Status and Whether they were ever Involved in UPO Programs

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Involved in UPO	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	18	16.5	25	22.5	4	26.7	3	37.5	50	20.6
No	91	83.5	86	77.5	11	73.3	5	62.5	193	79.4
Total	109	100.0	111	100.0	15	100.0	8	100.0	243	100.0

Of the fifty persons who stated that they had been involved in UPO programs (See Table 32), thirty-three had been placed in jobs (17 through the WAY Youth Employment Counseling Center and 16 through UPO Employment Centers or offices), three had been involved in the Pre-college Training Program and 14 could not state specifically in what type of program they had been involved. Seven of the institutionalized youth (21 percent) had been involved in UPO Employment programs.

Table 32

Type of Program Involvement by Institutional Status and Home Status

	Institutional Status									
	Non-Institutional				Institutional					
Home Status	Broken		Intact		Broken		Intact		Total	
Type of Involvement	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
YECC	9	50.0	3	12.0	3	75.0	2	66.7	17	34.0
Other Employment Placement	8	44.4	6	24.0	1	25.0	1	33.3	16	32.0
Pre-College	1	5.6	2	8.0	0	-	0	-	3	6.0
No information	0	-	14	56.0	0	-	0	-	14	28.0
Total	18	100.0	25	100.0	4	100.0	3	100.0	50	100.0

Table 33 shows the data on the youths' opinions of how well UPO is doing the job. Most of the youth, (122 or 50.2 percent) were unable to give an opinion of how well UPO programs were doing. One hundred and twelve of the respondents (45.6 percent) felt that the UPO programs were either doing very well or well, while nine felt that UPO programs were not doing very well. The distribution of opinions of UPO programs was much the same among the institutionalized and the non-institutionalized groups. The differences were not statistically significant.

Table 33

Institutional Status and Opinion of UPO Success

How Well is UPO doing the job	Institutional Status					
	Non-Institutional		Institutional		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Very well	56	25.5	6	26.1	62	25.5
Well	42	19.1	8	34.8	50	20.6
Not very well	5	2.3	4	17.4	9	3.7
Cannot say	117	53.1	5	21.7	122	50.2
Total	220	100.0	23	100.0	243	100.0

Summary and Conclusions

Youth in the Cardozo target area were enumerated using records obtained from the area's public and parochial schools, the Youth Employment Counseling Center, Lorton Youth Center, National Training School and the Children's Center. From the 1644 youth enumerated, a sample of 310 14-year-olds and 315 17-year-olds was drawn. These youth constitute the adolescent cohort and included the total number of institutionalized youth 14 and 17 years of age whose home addresses were in the target area.

A total of 455 of the 625 youth (72 percent) in the adolescent cohort were interviewed. Data from 434 of these interviews were included in the analysis. One hundred twenty-three of the youth selected for the sample could not be located and have not yet been interviewed. These youth have been traced through the United States Post Office. An additional 47 youth were in armed services, had moved out of town, were uncooperative or deceased.

The interviewing was completed between June 20, 1965 and December 31, 1965. The interviews were conducted by Neighborhood Youth Corps Trainees, graduate and undergraduate students of Howard University.

The interview schedule was pretested on ten youth from the Cardozo area who were not included in the sample. The interviews were coded and punched onto data processing cards. Intercoder reliability was conducted on the completed interviews to determine the extent to which there was agreement among coders. The average percent agreement among coders was 88.3.

The analysis of the interview data was concerned with individuals, family and neighborhood factors for the institutionalized and non-institutionalized youth included in this study. An attempt was made to determine what factors differentiated between the institutionalized and non-institutionalized adolescent. It was reasoned that the making of such a determination would be of value in identifying the vulnerable youth in the Cardozo area included in this population. Once such an identification is made, intervention efforts could then become more focused.

It was also hypothesized that intervention would be directly related to institutional status and home status of these adolescents. The analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the youth who were in institutions and those who were not in institutions with respect to their home status. Slightly better than 51 percent of the youth included in this study were from intact homes while 48.6 percent were from non-intact homes.

Individual Characteristics

Of these youth, 57.4 percent were male and 42.6 percent were female. Eight of the institutionalized population were female and 47 were male.

Almost one-fourth of the 434 youth included in the analysis were school dropouts. Forty-one (40.2 percent) of those who had dropped out of school were institutionalized youth.

A statistically significant difference was found between the institutionalized and non-institutionaized population with respect to current grade level. The mean educational level was highest for the non-institutionalized youth from intact homes, while the lowest grade level was found among the institutionalized population from broken homes.

A significant difference was found to exist between the non-institutionalized and institutionalized population with respect to cumulative average scholastic grade. The average grade for the non-institutionalized population was significantly higher than the cumulative average grade of the institutionalized population. The grade C was the average grade for the total population. The youth in this population have been recorded as having only fair scholastic achievement during their school years.

A similar finding was obtained for the analysis conducted on the school achievement percentile test score data. The majority of these youth fall between the 51st and the 79th percentile. Only 21 percent of the youth scored above the 79th percentile. School achievement test scores were not available on the majority of the institutionalized population.

Determination of the occupational aspirations of the youth was included as an interview item. The data analysis revealed that these youth tend to have high occupational aspirations. A majority of them hope for professional or managerial careers. Proportionately more of the youth who are currently institutionalized and from intact families showed greater uncertainty about their occupational goals. The youth who were non-institutionalized tend to show greater certainty about occupational aspirations.

In general, these youth tended to feel that they will be able to accomplish the occupational goals they have set for themselves. Only 38 (8.7 percent) of the 434 youth interviewed felt that their chances of of accomplishing their occupational goals were very poor.

When asked what social class they would like to belong to when they are adults, a majority of these youth stated the middle or upper social class. One-fourth of them, however, felt that they would want to belong to the working class. No statistically significant difference was found between the responses of the institutionalized population and the non-institutionalized population with respect to social class aspirations.

These youth were not specifically asked whether or not they belong to a gang. An attempt was made instead to determine whether or not these youth had very close friends with whom they associated. Analysis of the data from this variable indicated that the majority of these youth have one or more friends with whom they feel they are "tight" (close friends). No differences were found between the youth who are institutionalized and those who are not with respect to the number of friends that they have in their group. The analysis did indicate that the youth who are currently institutionalized and from broken homes, most often reported having two or three friends with whom they associated frequently. Ninety-four or 23 percent of the youth interviewed reported that they had ten or more close friends.

Frequency of meeting with friends was found to be statistically different for the four intergroup comparisons. The youth who are institutionalized and from broken homes reported that, when they were not institutionalized, they met more frequently with their friends than did the other youth. A majority of these youth report that they meet with their friends every day.

These youth say that these meetings with friends, in general are not planned. Only 34 percent of the 408 youth who have two or more friends report that their meetings are planned. The relationship between planned and unplanned meetings is essentially the same for both broken and intact home youth irrespective of institutional status.

Of the youth who are not institutionalized only 25 report having been arrested for breaking the law. They most frequently report having committed larceny and then disorderly conduct. The majority of these 25 youth had been placed on probation for these offenses. Youth in institutions report having committed larceny, housebreaking and assault. These are listed in frequency of occurrences.

Family Characteristics

Family income data were available for 309 of the 434 youth interviewed. The median income reported was $3,081.77. The median income of families of the institutionalized population was $3,000.34, and the median income reported for the families of the non-institutionalized population was $3,623.45. This is markedly lower than the median income of $5,993.00 for families living in Washington, D. C. and the median income of $4,464.00 reported by UPO-WAY for the Cardozo School District. No statistically significant difference was found between the family income reported by the institutionalized and non-institutionalized youth in this study. When the comparisons were made between those youth who are institutionalized and from intact homes, and those institutionalized and from broken homes, a significant difference was found. Similarly, those institutionalized youth from broken homes and non-institutionalized youth from broken homes were found to differ significantly with respect to family income.

A higher proportion of these youth who live under broken home conditions report their family income at the basic subsistence level.

Over 90 percent of the youth interviewed in this study have one sibling or more. The median number of siblings is 3.5 for the total population. The difference between the institutionalized and non-institutionalized youth was not significant for this variable.

While 123 youth selected for this study were not located for interview purposes, having moved from the known addresses, the majority of the youth who were interviewed reported moving a relatively small number of times during the last five years. It was found that the youth in the institutionalized population moved significantly more frequently than the youth in the non-institutionalized population.

A majority of these youth report that their mothers attend church at least three or more times a month. The youth in the institutional population, irrespective of home status, report proportionately more frequent church attendance by their mothers than do the non-institutionalized youth. No statistically significant difference was found, however, between the institutionalized and the non-institutionalized population with respect to home status and church participation of the mothers.

Similarly, no difference was found between the groups, the institutionalized and non-institutionalized population, with respect to their perception of the closeness of their families. The majority of these youth feel that their families are close or very close. Only among the institutionalized youth from intact families is there a preponderance of youth who feel that their families are not close.

Half of the youth reported having seen their parents drunk or high. This was reported by 70 percent of the institutionalized youth from broken homes. Only 18 percent of all youth, however, report frequent parental drunkeness.

Better than one-third of the youth report that some member of their family had been arrested. The proportion is much higher for the institutionalized population than for the non-institutionalized population. Among the non-institutionalized population, youth from the broken homes had more family members who had been arrested.

Significantly more of the youth who are currently in institutions have family members who were arrested for felonies and/or misdemeanors. The youth in the non-institutionalized population tend to have family members who have been arrested for misdemeanors.

Neighborhood Characteristics

Of the youth in the sample, 101 (23 percent) lived in census tracts 48 and 49 which have the two highest delinquency rates. About 38 percent of the institutionalized youth lived in these tracts, as compared with slightly more than 21 percent of the non-institutionalized youth.

Compared to the rest of the Cardozo area census tracts 48, 49, and 50 have more families and unrelated individuals with: (1) lower than median incomes; (2) overcrowdedness; (3) broken homes; (4) above average illegitimacy rates; and (5) lower than average composite socio-economic scores. One hundred ten of the non-institutionalized youth live in these three tracts while almost one-half of the youth who are currently institutionalized lived in these deviant neighborhoods.

UPO Intervention

Over one-half of the youth interviewed in this study had heard of the UPO programs. As would be expected, a much higher proportion of youth who are non-institutionalized had heard of the United Planning Organization. When the 243 youth who had heard of UPO were asked if they had been involved in UPO programs, 20 percent indicated that they had. Of the total number of youth who reported being involved in the UPO programs half are non-institutionalized and come from intact homes. Twenty-two of the youth who are from broken homes reported being involved in the UPO programs. The majority of the youth involved in UPO programs had contact with the Youth Employment Counseling Center program.

Forty-five percent of the total number of youth who reported having heard of UPO feel that it is doing its job well or very well. There was no statistically significant difference in opinion between youth who were in institutions and those who were not.

In conclusion, the individual characteristics of the youth, who are in institutions and those not in institutions are not significantly different with respect to home status. No difference was found between the percentile achievement score for those institutionalized and those not institutionalized. The social class aspiration and peer group behavior is essentially the same for the institutional and non-institutionalized population. Both groups of youth have been involved in offenses for which they have been arrested.

The youth are significantly different, however, on the educational variable. The institutionalized youth tends to drop out of school earlier and his average scholastic grade is lower than the non-institutionalized population. The finding of an absence of a difference with respect to home status and the achievement scores obtained by these youth suggest that there is a significant number of delinquency prone or delinquency vulnerable youth in the non-institutionalized population.

The data are not adequate with respect to determining whether or not these youth come from a criminal, conflict or retreatist gang. Nor was it determined that the law violating behavior in which they engage was a result of these youth belonging to a criminal sub-culture. The youth from this low income population have social class aspirations that would place them in the middle or upper class. Similarly, their occupational aspirations indicates that they perceive themselves achieving at a professional level.

The absence of a difference between the two groups on the broken home variable, which has been repeatedly shown to be associated with juvenile delinquency, however, may attest to presence of delinquency proneness.

When the family characteristics were examined no difference was found between the institutional population and non-institutional population with respect to church attendance and the youth's perception of the closeness of their family. A significant difference was found between mobility, drinking behavior, and law violating behavior. Markedly more of the families of youth in the institutional population had higher mobility rates, family deviancy with respect to lawviolating behavior and a higher frequency of alcohol consumption.

When the neighborhood deviancy was examined, many of the youth both from the insitutionalized population and the non-institutionalized population come from high delinquency areas. They come from areas where the median income is low, where overcrowding is high, where the incidence of broken homes is high, where the illegitimacy rates are high and where the overall socio-economic circumstances are low.

The association between many of these variables has been documented by Palmore (1963) and Wilkins (1963). Reiss (1961) on the other hand, has pointed out that "a low status boy in a predominantly high status area with a low rate of delinquency has almost no chance of being classified as juvenile delinquent." Conversely, a low status youth in a predominantly high delinquency area has almost no chance of not participating in delinquent behavior. As Pathak (1963) points out, zones of physical and social deterioration contribute about one-half of the delinquent children in the area. This author also found a relationship between income, overcrowding and juvenile delinquency.

The fact that the youth in the institutions have been adjudicated delinquent is also no real indication of the extent of juvenile delinquency to be found in the deviant neighborhood. Periman (1960) has pointed out that the exact number of undetected delinquents is difficult to discern but reports that there are studies which indicate that this number is substantially higher than the statistics obtained on adjudicated delinquents.

If the absence of differences found between the institutionalized and the non-institutionalized youth is any indication of the probability of these latter youth becoming delinquenct, then it seems highly desirable that these youth be identified and the circumstances which contribute to their becoming delinquent be focused upon with a greater precision than has been evident in programs of intervention to date.

The fact that only 50 of the 434 youth from this low-income population have been involved in the UPO programs suggest that a more intensified effort needs to be made, not only to locate these specific youth, but to develop programs specifically aimed at alleviating the factors which may be related to their subsequently becoming delinquents.

As Russman (1964) has pointed out, the aggregate of services available in a community can be called upon to assist in putting into practive what is known about delinquency and delinquency proneness and prevention can be more affectively attempted through a coordinated effort.

Chapter Four

The Family Study

> The family is the cornerstone of our society. More than any other force it shapes the attitudes, the hopes, the ambitions, and the values of the child. And when the family collapses, it is the children that are usually damaged. When it happens on a massive scale the community itself is crippled.
>
> .....so, unless we work to strengthen the family, to create conditions under which most parents will stay together--all the rest: schools, and playgrounds, and public assistance, and private concern, will never be enough to cut completely the circle of despair and deprivation. Lyndon B. Johnson

The family in all societies is the body that must deal with the drives, motives and needs of members; maintain itself as a functioning unit; and relate itself to the demands of the broader society. The ability of the family to function effectively as a unit depends to a great degree on the availability of resources for serving family and individual needs and on the extent to which the family is capable of efficient management of the available resources.

The relationship between available resources and family instability has received renewed interest within the last three years. This interest has focused primarily on the resources available to the Negro low-income family. Moynihan (1965-a) in a recent article on employment, income and the Negro family makes the following statement:

> The cumulative result of unemployment and low-income, and probably also the excessive dependence upon the income of women has produced an unmistakable crisis in the Negro family, and raises the serious question of whether this crisis is beginning to create conditions which tend to reinforce the cycle that produced it in the first instance.

In another, but related article, Moynihan (1965-b) in developing 'A Case for National Action' states:

> In a word, a national effort towards the problem of Negro Americans must be directed towards the question of family structure. The object should be to strengthen the Negro family so as to enable it to raise and support its members as do other families.

While Edwards (1966) and others take issue with Moynihan for the position he takes on causal factors related to the current status of the low-income Negro family, there seems to be consensus, as Lewis (1965) has pointed out, on the need for "strong and prompt intervention."

The questions asked by developers of programs of intervention and research are: Precisely who belongs to the target population? What techniques of intervention are most efficacious once the target population has been identified? What is the ultimate effect of programs of intervention on the individual members of a family and the family as a functioning unit?

The United Planning Organization's programs of intervention were designed to induce fundamental changes in the quality and the circumstances of life for poverty strickened youth and their families in the Cardozo School District.

Based on demographic data, the target population for UPO programs of intervention have been delineated. For example, analyses of 1960 census data conducted and reported by the United Planning Organization (1963) indicated that there are 25,465 youth under 18 years of age living in the Cardozo School District. Of these, 15,580 or 61.2 percent were living with both parents; 3,617 or 14.2 percent were living with one parent; and the remaining

6,268 or 24.6 percent were living in non-primary households. This latter group of youth are living in households in which neither of the natural parents are present.

As indicated in an earlier chapter of this report, the association between broken homes and social deviancy has been well documented. Controlling for socio-economic status helps to explain this association; however, deviancy is more likely to be found among youth living in low-income, broken home situations. Again, what is obscured is that some deviancy is to be found in two-parent households and secondly, that not all broken homes produce deviancy. It seems that a more precise examination of different family forms and socio-deviancy is necessary. As Lewis (1965) states:

> Few would deny that a harmonious two-parent home offers the best prospect for a child to reach his full potential On the other hand, a substantial minority of American children, over six and a half million of them, live in homes headed by a woman. It is reasonable, therefore, to review current assumptions about the one-parent home and what it means for the developmental prospects of the children who grow up in it.
>
> It has been our habit to view any deviation from our model family pattern as an aberration. A number of research findings have tended to reinforce this habit. The question may be raised, however, whether a form that includes so many children and has produced so may effective and apparently happy adults, deserves a less negative status. Perhaps the time has come to recognize the one-parent family as a family form in its own right.

Rationale

A typology developed by Miller (1964) has been modified to serve in this study. This typology describes families in terms of financial resources and their use for serving family ends. Miller addresses himself to two variables, income and family style-of-life.

Stability and instability refers to an income cutoff point above which there is income assumed to be sufficient to meet essential subsistence requirements for a family, and below which the income is too small to fulfill these needs adequately. Economic security in this sense is basic security and does not figure in "surplus" income to handle unexpected life demands and crises, or for recreational and other expenditures that act to decrease the monotony of life; however , as Miller (1964) states, "lower-class life is crisis-life, constantly trying to make-do with string where rope is needed."

The Miller typology has been modified for the purpose of examining the relationship between family form (intact and broken) and family style-of-life (stable-unstable).

	Family Form	
Family Style-of-Life	Intact	Broken
Stable		
Unstable		

It should be noted that this typology assumes that low-income families are not all identical. In this study, family form will be limited to the intact and non-intact family. No attempt will be made here to differentiate between the composition of the intact

intact families, except to operationally define the intact family as one in which both the natural mother and father is present, or one in which one of the natural parents is present with a mother or father surrogate, or one in which both parents are surrogates. The non-intact family is defined as one in which only one parent, or parent surrogate is present in the home. Family style-of-life is operationally defined by dichotomizing on a factor which has been empirically determined to be related to stability and instability, i.e., income.

For the purpose of this study, low-income families, are those whose incomes fall below the median income of $5,993 for the district of Columbia. Stability is there, operationally defined as being found in those in this low-income group whose incomes are above the median of the group. Instability is defined as the converse of the above, i.e., found in those low-income families whose median annual incomes are below the median of the group.

The above typology and operational definitions allow for a more precise testing of hypotheses about this low-income population.

It was hypothesized that family form and family style-of-life determine: (1) the extent to which the low-income family is integrated into the community or neighborhood; (2) the utilization of resources by the low-income family; (3) the amount and kind of social deviancy found in the family; (4) the type of goal-setting behavior; and (5) knowledge of and response to intervention efforts.

Method

A structured interview schedule was developed for use in this study. The original data collection instrument was pretested on ten mothers of youth in the target area. Review of the pretest interviews indicated that certain changes were required in the instrument. In addition, estimates of time required to administer the instrument and the type of sensitivity training necessary for the interviews was ascertained. The final interview schedule contained 130 discrete items.

An interviewer's manual was prepared which gave the purpose of the study, the reasons and objectives for each question, the kinds of answers that would satisfy the objectives of the interview, ways to establish rapport, ways to maintain objectivity, and techniques of probing for pertinent and full answers without biasing answers.

The actual interview training extended over a three-day period and included two or three trial interviews per person, role-playing and discussion of actual interviewing experiences. Seven male and female graduate and undergraduate students were used as interviewers. Selection and training of interviewers and the field work were completed during the months of July and August, 1965.

Coding was carried out as a single operation after all the interviews had been completed. A code manual or guide was constructed after a significant number of the interviews had been completed. Code categories for each question were determined by the kinds of answers that were given to each question.

A sample of 101 mothers was drawn from the families of the fourteen-year-old adolescent cohort. This sample included those in twenty non-intact families and eighty-one intact families. This sample was screened for those families whose total incomes were below the median income ($5,993) of the District of Columbia. A total of 56 mothers are included in this analysis. Eleven of these families are non-intact and 45 are intact.

Results

Table 34 below shows the distribution of intact and non-intact families on the income variable. Inspection of this table reveals that 37.7 percent of the intact families and 63.7 percent of the non-intact families have incomes of less than $4,000 per annum.

Table 34

Intact and Non-intact Families by Income

Income	Family Form					
	Intact		Non-intact		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
$5,000-5,993	17	37.9	3	27.2	20	35.7
4,000-4,999	11	24.4	1	9.1	12	21.4
3,000-3,999	11	24.4	1	9.1	12	21.4
2,000-2,999	5	11.1	5	45.5	10	17.9
1,000-1,999	1	2.2	1	9.1	2	3.5
Total	45	100	11	100	56	100

For the purpose of the study, the combined family income has been used as an operational definition of family stability. The median income for this low-income population is $4,329.50. The distribution of the intact and non-intact families by median income is presented in Table 35. Although the number of non-intact families is small, a higher proportion of the non-intact families fall below the median income for this group.

The median income for the non-intact families was $2,499.50 and is considerably lower than the median income of $3,612.00 reported in the 1960 census for the year 1959, for the one-earner non-white families.

Table 35

Intact and Non-intact Families by Median Income

Income	Family Form Intact N	%	Non-intact N	%	Total N	%
Above Median	23	41.1	4	7.1	27	48.2
Below Median	22	39.2	7	12.5	29	51.7
Total	45	80.3	11	19.6	56	99.9

A comparison between the educational level of the head of the household for the intact and non-intact family is made in Table 36. Inspection of this table reveals that 45.4 percent of the non-intact heads of household and 78.5 percent of the intact heads of household have less than ten years of education. The median educational level for the total group is 8.0 grades.

Table 36

Intact and Non-intact Heads of Household

by Education Level

Family Style	Intact		Non-intact		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Years of Education						
13 - 15	1	2.2	1	9.1	2	3.5
10 - 12	10	22.2	5	45.5	15	26.8
7 - 9	19	42.2	3	27.2	22	39.3
4 - 6	9	20.0	2	18.2	11	19.6
1 - 3	6	13.3	0	--	6	10.7
Total	45	99.9	11	100	56	100

A statistical test (chi-square) was conducted to determine whether was a difference between the head of intact and non-intact families whose incomes fell above and below the median income of the group, and the heads of the intact and non-intact households whose educational level fell above or below the median of the group. The obtained differences were not found to be statistically significant. The sample was drawn from a common population with respect to income and education.

Table 37 A

Family Form, Family Style and Number of Children

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Number of Children										
1	1	4.3	4	18.1	0	--	1	14.3	6	10.7
2	4	17.4	1	4.6	1	25.0	3	42.8	9	16.0
3	1	4.3	3	13.6	2	5.0	1	14.3	7	12.5
4	3	13.0	5	22.7	0	--	1	14.3	9	16.0
5	8	34.8	2	9.1	1	25.0	0	--	11	19.6
6	3	13.0	4	18.1	--	--	1	14.3	8	14.3
7	1	4.3	1	4.6	--	--	--	--	2	3.6
8	1	4.3	1	4.6	--	--	--	--	2	3.6
9	1	4.3	0	--	--	--	--	--	1	1.8
13	--	--	1	4.6	--	--	--	--	1	1.8
Total	23	99.7	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	99.9

Table 37 B

Mean Number of Children by Family Form and Family Style

	Family Form		
Family Style	Intact	Non-intact	Mean of Group
Stable	4.6	3.3	4.5
Unstable	4.4	2.9	3.0
Mean of Group	4.5	3.0	4.2

Table 37-A and 37-B compare family form and family style and the number of children in the family. Inspection of Table 37-B indicates that the mean number of children for this population is 4.2. The unstable, non-intact families have fewer children than the other family forms and family styles. The non-intact families, in general, have fewer children than the intact families.

It was hypothesized that family form and family style-of life determined the extent to which the low-income family was integrated into the community or neighborhood. This hypothesis was tested by making comparisons of family form and family style-of-life for the following: (1) whether a family had moved in the last five years, (2) perception of the neighborhood, (3) visiting in the neighborhood, and (4) church membership and attendance. The results of these analyses are presented in the following tables.

Table 38 reveals that 50 percent of the low-income families in this group moved at least once over the last five years. The non-intact families as a group did more moving than did the intact families. The majority of the non-intact families 72.7 percent moved at least once during the five-year-period. Of the total number of intact families, 40 percent moved during this period.

Table 38

Family Form, Family Style and Change of Residence In the Last Five Years

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Change of Residence										
No	13	56.5	12	54.5	--	--	3	42.9	28	50.0
Yes	10	43.4	10	45.4	4	100	4	57.1	28	50.0
Total	23	99.9	22	99.9	4	100	7	100	56	100

The mothers from these low-income families were asked how they felt about their neighborhood.

Table 39 shows that 26 of respondents 46.4 percent were relatively neutral about their neighborhood. Seventeen of the mothers 30.4 percent, however, thought that it was a very good place to live, while 13, 23.2 percent thought that it was very bad.

Table 39

Family Form, Family Style and Perception of the Neighborhood

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Perception of Neighborhood										
A very good place	6	26.1	7	31.8	1	25.0	3	42.9	17	30.4
Goo & bad	13	56.5	9	40.9	1	25.0	3	42.9	26	46.4
A very bad place	4	17.4	6	27.3	2	50.0	1	14.2	13	23.2
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

The respondents were asked if they ever visited others in their **neighborhood** and how often they visited. The majority of these low-income families 61.7 percent never visit in their neighborhood. Of those who do visit, the visits were infrequent, occurring two or three times a month or less. The non-intact, unstable families tend to do more visiting in the neighborhood than do the other family styles and family forms. These data are presented in Table 40.

Table 40

Family Form, Family Style and Visiting in the Neighborhood

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Visits People in the Neighborhood										
Several times a week	1	4.3	1	4.5	--	--	2	28.6	4	7.1
Once a week	1	4.3	1	4.5	--	--	1	14.2	3	5.4
Two or more times a month	8	37.8	5	22.7	1	25.0	1	14.2	15	26.8
Never	13	52.5	15	68.2	3	75.0	3	42.9	34	60.7
Total	23	99.9	22	99.0	4	100	7	99.9	56	100

Tables 41 and 42 show the relationship between family form and family style, church membership and church attendance. Most mothers in this sample report church membership. The intact, unstable families, however, report a higher percent not affiliated with a church in Washington, D.C. Proportionately more of the stable and unstable, non-intact families reported church membership. Table 42 shows the relationship between church attendance and family form and family style. A slight majority of these families 51.8 percent attend church one or more times per month. The non-intact, unstable family exhibits less frequent church attendance than any of the other family forms and family styles.

Table 41

Family Form, Family Style and Church Membership

Family Style	Family Forms									
	Intact				Non-intact					
	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Church Membership										
Yes	17	73.9	13	59.1	4	100	6	85.7	40	71.43
No	6	26.1	9	40.9	--	--	1	14.3	16	28.57
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

Table 42

Family Form, Family Style of Life and

Church Attendance

Family Style	Family Forms									
	Intact				Non-intact					
	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Church Attendance										
Once a week	10	43.4	4	18.2	2	50.0	1	14.3	17	30.4
Once or twice a month	4	17.4	4	18.2	1	25.0	1	14.3	12	21.4
Several times a year	5	21.7	3	13.6	--	--	4	57.1	12	21.4
Seldom or never	4	17.4	14	50.0	1	25.0	1	14.3	15	26.8
Total	23	99.9	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

It was hypthesized that family form and family style-of-life would be related to the resources available to these low-income families. This hypothesis was tested by making a comparison between family form and family style-of-life on: (1) welfare status; (2) job status; (3) purchasing of life and medical insurance; (4) medical and dental care; (5) personal debts; (6) savings; and (7) management of income.

A computation was made based on the budget allowance for welfare families in the District of Columbia. Four of the unstable, intact families had lower incomes than they would have received, had they been on public welfare.

Table 43 shows the relationship between family form and family style and whether these low income families have received public welfare assistance during the last five years. This table reveals that 12 of the 56 respondents 24.4 percent in this sample had been welfare recipients during the last five years. Four of these 12 families were unstable, intact families while five were unstable, non-intact families. Eight of the 56 families included in this study are currently on public welfare.

Table 43

Family Form, Family Style and Welfare Assistance During the Past Five Years

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Received Welfare During last 5 yrs.										
Yes	2	8.7	4	18.1	1	25.0	5	71.4	12	21.4
No	21	91.3	18	81.8	3	75.0	2	28.6	44	78.6
Total	23	100	22	99.9	4	100	7	100	56	100

The respondents were asked the number of jobs held by the head of household over the last five years. Table 44 indicates that the majority of these low-income heads-of-household 71.4 percent held only one job during the last five years. One of the intact family mothers and one of the non-intact family mothers reported doing day-work. These mothers have been shown as having only one job for analytic purposes.

Table 44

Family Form, Family Style and the Number of Jobs held Within Last Five Years

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Number of Jobs										
0	1	4.3	2	9.1	1	25.0	3	42.8	7	12.5
1	19	82.6	15	68.2	3	75.0	3	42.8	40	71.4
2	2	8.7	4	18.1	--	--	1	14.3	7	12.5
3	1	4.3	--	--	--	--	--	--	1	1.7
5	--	--	1	4.5	--	--	--	--	1	1.7
Total	23	99.9	22	99.9	4	100	7	99.9	56	99.8

The relationship between family forms and family style-of-life and whether or not these low-income families carried life insurance is presented in Table 45. The majority of these respondents carried life insurance. Only in the case of the stable, non-intact family did less than 50 percent answer yes to this question.

Table 45

Family Form, Family Style and Current Purchase of Life Insurance

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Currently Purchasing Life Insurance										
Yes	20	86.9	16	72.7	2	50.0	4	57.1	42	74.9
No	3	13.0	6	27.2	2	50.0	3	42.8	14	24.9
Total	23	99.9	22	99.9	4	100	7	99.9	56	99.8

Table 46 shows the distribution of families on the health insurance variable. Slightly better than half of this population does not carry health insurance. The non-intact, stable families purchase more health insurance than any of the other three family forms and family styles.

Table 46

Family Form, Family Style and Current Purchase of Health Insurance

	Family Forms									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Currently Purchasing Health Ins.										
Yes	13	56.5	9	40.9	3	75.0	1	16.6	26	47.2
No	10	43.5	13	59.1	1	25.0	5	83.3	29	52.8
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	6*	99.9	55	100

*There was one "no information."

The respondents were asked if they or any member of their family had to delay getting medical care that was needed during the past year. The distribution of responses to this question is presented in Table 47. In general, these families tend to receive needed medical care.

Table 47

Family Form, Family Style and Getting Medical Care

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Delay in Getting Medical Care										
Yes, delayed	2	8.7	1	4.5	--	--	1	14.3	4	7.1
Did not delay	21	91.3	21	95.5	4	100	6	85.7	52	92.9
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

A similar question was asked about dental care. The percentage of those who needed dental care, but did not receive it, is markedly higher than those needing, but not receiving, medical care. Half of this population needed, but did not receive, dental care during the course of the year. The non-intact stable families was the only category where the total number of respondents reported not having neglected needed dental care. The distribution of responses to this question is presented in Table 48.

Table 48

Family Form, Family Style and Receiving Needed Dental Care

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Delay in getting Dental Care										
Yes, delayed	13	56.5	9	40.9	4	100	2	28.6	28	50.0
Did not delay	10	43.5	13	59.1	--	--	5	71.4	28	50.0
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

The respondents were asked, "Do you owe money on furniture, automobiles, clothing, property, or anything else at present?" A slight majority of these mothers 51.8 percent responded positively to this question. The unstable, intact and unstable, non-intact had the highest proportion responding negatively to this question. These data are presented in Table 49.

Table 49

Family Form, Family Style and Personal Debts

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Personal Debts										
Yes	13	56.5	9	40.9	4	100	3	42.9	29	51.8
No	10	43.5	13	59.1	--	--	4	57.1	27	48.2
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

Table 50 shows a comparison between family form and family style, and whether these families did or did not have savings in a bank, credit union, or any other form. The majority of these low-income families have no savings. Of those who responded yes to this question, proportionately more belong to the stable, intact family category. For those responding no proportionately more are found in the unstable, family group.

Table 50

Family Form, Family Style and Savings

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-Intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
Have Savings	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	10	43.4	1	4.5	1	25	1	14.3	13	23.2
No	13	56.5	21	95.4	3	75	5	71.4	42	74.9
No information								14.3	1	1.8
Total	23	99.9	22	99.9	4	100	7	100	56	99.9

Nineteen (34 percent) of these low-income families indicated that the most serious problem for the family was not having enough money to meet their needs. They were also asked to state whether they felt that they spent too much money on food , rent and clothing. The distribution of their responses to this question is presented in Table 51 which shows that the majority felt that about the right amount was spent on food, rent and clothing. Eight (14.3 percent) of these families felt that too much of their income was spent on these items, while 17 or 30.4 percent felt that not enough was being spent.

Table 51

Family Form, Family Style and Money Spent on Food, Clothing and Rent

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Money Spent on Necessities										
Too much	3	13.0	3	13.6			2	28.6	8	14.3
About right	16	69.6	12	54.5	1	25.0	2	28.6	31	55.4
Not enough	4	17.4	7	31.8	3	75.0	3	42.8	17	30.4
Total	23	100	22	99.9	4	100	7	100	56	100

It was hypothesized that family form and family style-of-life is directly related to the extent of social deviancy in a given family. This was tested by making a comparison between family form and family-style-of-life, and school behavior, law violating behavior and alcohol consumption.

The mothers were asked if their adolescent sons or daughters had been in trouble at school during the last three years. If youth from these low-income families had been in trouble in school it was not reflected in their mothers' responses to this question. Proportionately more of the mothers responded negatively to this question. Only 5.3 percent of these mothers reported their children having difficulty in school.

Table 52

Family Form, Family Style and Adolescent
Difficulties at School

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Difficulty at School										
Yes	1	4.3	1	4.5	1	25.0			3	5.3
No	22	95.7	21	95.5	3	75.0	7	100	53	94.6
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	99.9

Table 53 shows the mothers' knowledge of their adolescent youth's contacts with the police. The majority of these mothers 87.5 percent reported that their children have not been in trouble with the police.

The non-intact, stable families and the intact, unstable families reported proportionately more of their children as having difficulty with the police.

Table 53

Family Form, Family Style and Trouble with the Police

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Difficulty with the Police										
Yes	2	8.7	3	13.6	1	25.0	1	14.3	7	12.5
No	21	91.3	19	86.4	3	75.0	6	85.7	49	87.5
Total	23	100	21	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

These low-income mothers were asked if they drink alcoholic beverages. Their responses to this question are presented in Table 54 which reveals that 39.3 percent of the population state that they drink alcoholic beverages. Proportionately more of the respondents in the unstable, non-intact family group report drinking alcoholic beverages than any of the other family styles and forms.

Table 54

Family Form, Family Style and Drinking Alcoholic Beverages

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Drink Alco. Bev.										
Yes	7	30.4	9	40.9	1	25.0	5	71.4	22	39.3
No	16	69.6	13	59.1	3	75.0	2	28.6	34	60.7
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

When these low-income mothers were asked about the frequency of their consumption of alcoholic beverages, the majority of those who consume alcohol state that they do so occasionally. The non-intact family, unstable mothers report proportionately more drinking, on week-ends and occasionally during the week, than the other family styles and family forms. These data are presented in Table 55.

Table 55

Family Form, Family Style and Frequency of Drinking Reported by Low Income Mothers

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-Intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Freq. of Drinking										
Week-ends	3	13.0	3	13.6	1	25.0	2	28.6	9	25.1
Occasionally	4	17.4	6	27.3	-	-	3	42.8	13	36.2
Doesn't drink	16	69.6	13	59.1	3	75.0	2	28.6	34	60.7
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

It was hypothesized that family form and family-style-of-life group would be directly related to the type of goal-setting behavior for this group of low-income mothers. This was tested by examining the distribution of responses on: (1) the aspirations and goals set by the mothers for their children; (2) the extent to which these low-income mothers are satisfied with their current housing conditions; and (3) attitudes toward the future. The results of the analyses conducted on these data are presented in the following six tables.

The low-income mothers included in this sample were asked, "If things work out the way you would like, what sort of things would you like for your children during the next five years?" The distribution of their responses to this question is presented in Table 56 which indicates that 42.8 percent would want to provide education for thildren during the next five years. Proportionately more of the mothers in the intact families have educational aspirations for their children than mothers in non-intact families.

Table 56

Family Form, Family Style and Mothers' Aspiration for Children over the Next Five Years

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Aspiration										
Provide Educ.	10	43.5	11	50.0	1	25.0	2	28.6	24	42.8
Provide Home	6	26.1	7	31.0	2	50.0	3	42.8	17	30.4
Provide Needs	5	21.7	2	9.1	1	25.0	1	14.3	10	17.9
Don't Know	2	8.7	2	9.1	-	-	1	14.3	5	8.9
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

Table 57 shows the distribution of occupations which these low-income mothers want their adolescent sons to have. Inspection of this table indicates that 28.6 percent of these low-income mothers have aspirations for their sons in business and or the professions. Sixteen of the 56 mothers 28.6 percent indicated that they have no occupational aspirations for their adolescent sons. The stable, intact family tends to have the highest proportion of mothers, who have no occupational aspirations for their sons. Proportionately more of the non-intact, unstable families indicate that they would want their adolescent sons to be artists, athletes or to do clerical work.

Table 57

Family Form, Family Style and Mothers' Occupational Aspiration for Adolescent Sons

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Occup'l. Aspirations										
Professional	1	4.5	7	31.8	2	50.0	-	-	10	17.9
Busi. & Managerial	5	21.7	1	4.5	-	-	-	-	6	10.7
Artist & Athlete	1	4.3	1	4.5	-	-	2	28.6	4	7.1
Clerical	3	13.0	4	18.1	1	25.0	2	28.6	10	17.9
Armed forces, Police & Guard	-	--	1	4.5	-	-	-	-	1	1.7
Craft or Trade	5	21.7	2	9.1	1	25.0	1	14.2	9	16.0
Occup'l. Aspiration not Defined	8	34.8	6	27.2	-	-	2	28.6	16	28.6
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	99.9

Table 58 shows the mother's appraisal of what her son's chances are for achieving the occupational aspirations which she has set for him. A high porportion of these mothers, 24 out of 56 42.9 percent indicate that they think that their sons' chances are very good (or good) for achieving these occupational aspirations. Conversely, five or 8.9 percent of the 56 mothers interviewed indicate that their sons' chances are very poor (or poor) for achieving these occupational aspirations. Proportionately more of the stable, non-intact family mothers feel that their children's chances are poor (or very poor) for achieving their aspirations. The highest proportion of mothers who feel that their adolescent sons chances are good or very good are in the non-intact, unstable family group.

Table 58

Family Form, Family Style and Mothers' Appraisal of Adolescents Achieving Occupational Aspirations

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Chances for Acheivement										
Very good of good	10	43.4	7	31.8	2	50.0	5	71.4	24	42.9
50-50-	12	52.2	12	54.5	1	25.0	2	28.6	27	48.2
Very poor or poor	1	4.3	3	13.6	1	25.0	-	-	5	8.9
Total	23	99.9	22	99.9	4	100	7	100	56	100

Table 59 shows the distribution of housing status of these low-income families. Examination of this table reveals that 28.6 percent of these low-income families are purchasing their homes. Proportionately more of the stable, non-intact families fall into this category. More of the unstable, non-intact families are renting their current residence.

Table 59

Family Form, Family Style and Current Housing Status

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Housing Status										
Renting	17	73.9	16	72.7	1	25.0	6	85.7	40	71.4
Buying	6	26.1	6	27.3	3	75.0	1	14.3	16	28.5
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

These low-income mothers were asked, "Would you like to move to another house or apartment?" Table 60 indicates that the majority, 71.4 percent of these low-income mothers would prefer improved housing for their families. The highest proportion indicating that they are satisfied with their present housing conditions are the unstable, intact family group. The stable, intact family category has preponderance of respondents indicating that they are dissatisfied with their current housing circumstances.

Table 60

Family Form, Family Style and Preference for Improved Housing

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Pref'f Improved Housing										
Yes	19	82.6	14	63.6	2	50.0	5	71.4	40	71.4
No	4	17.4	8	36.3	2	50.0	2	28.6	16	26.6
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

An attempt was made to determine the attitudes of these low-income mothers about the future. They were asked to state whether they agree or disagree with the following statement: "Nowadays, a person has to live pretty much for today and let tomorrow take care of itself." Table 61 reveals that half of these respondents agree with this item and half of them disagree. When the individual categories of family form and family styles are considered, it can be seen that the majority of the intact, stable and unstable families agree with the statement. For the non-intact family, a slight majority of the unstable mothers agree with this statement. The total number of respondents in the non-intact, stable category disagreed with the statement.

Table 61

Family Form, Family Style and Attitude about the Future

Family Style	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Let tomorrow take care of itself.										
Agree	12	52.2	12	54.5	-	-	4	57.1	28	50.0
Disagree	11	47.8	10	45.4	4	100	3	42.9	28	50.0
Total	23	100	22	99.9	4	100	7	100	56	100

Differential responses to intervention efforts were hypothesized to be related to family form and family styles. This hypothesis was tested by analysis of the data regarding whether or not these low-income families had heard of United Planning Organization, and the extent of their involvement. These data are presented in Tables 62, 63, and 64. Table 62 indicates that 44.6 percent of these families had heard of United Planning Organization. The unstable, intact family, however, has the highest proportion having not heard of United Planning Organization.

Table 62

Family Form, Family Style and Knowledge of United Planning Organization

	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
Family Style	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Heard of UPO										
Yes	9	39.1	7	31.8	3	75.0	6	85.7	25	44.6
No	14	60.9	15	68.2	1	25.0	1	14.3	31	55.4
Total	23	100	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

Data on those low-income families having involvement with United Planning Organization are presented in Table 63. The majority in the sample have not been involved in United Planning Organization's programs.

The unstable, non-intact families has a proportionately higher involvement with United Planning Organization's programs than the other family forms and family styles.

Table 63

Family Form, Family Style and Involvement in United Planning Organization Programs

Family Styles	Family Form									
	Intact				Non-intact					
	Stable		Unstable		Stable		Unstable		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Involved in UPO Programs										
Yes	2	9.5	2	9.1	-	-	4	57.1	8	14.3
No	21	91.3	20	90.9	4	100	3	42.9	48	85.7
Total	23	99.8	22	100	4	100	7	100	56	100

Summary and Conclusions

Recent programs of intervention aimed at increasing the socio-economic status of the low income family, have focused on the low-income family as a heterogeneous mass. It was the contention of this study that family form and family style-of-life would affect the type and extent of effectiveness of these intervention processes with the low-income families.

The typology advanced by Miller was modified and used to investigate the relationship between the family form and family style-of-life for a group of low-income families in the Cardozo area.

Family form was defined as being intact or non-intact. The intact family was operationally defined as one in which both the natural parents were present or one with one natural parent and a mother or father surrogate. The non-intact family was defined as one in which only one parent or parent surrogate was present.

Family style-of-life was termed stable or unstable. The operational definition of a stable family was one in which the median income was below the median income ($5,993) or the District of Columbia, but above the median income ($4,329.50) of this group of low-income families. The unstable family was one in which the median income was below the median income of the group. Using income as a criteria, the 56 families included in this study were selected from a total of 101 interviews conducted with mothers of the adolescent sample over the summer of 1965. Eighty-one interviews were conducted with non-intact families and 20 interviews were conducted with the intact families. The final sample selected for this study included 11 families that were non-intact and 45 that were intact.

The hypotheses being tested were that family form andfamily style-of-life determined: (1) the extent to which low-income families were integrated into the community or neighborhood; (2) the utilization of resources by these low-income families; (3) the amount and kind of social deviance found in the family; (4) the type of goal setting behavior in the low-income family; and (5) knowledge of, and response to United Planning Organization intervention efforts.

The small number of low-income families included in this study precluded a more sophisticated statistical analysis of the data. When these families were distributed into the categories for different family forms and family styles-of-life, the cells were too small for a more refined analysis. The findings, therefore, must be viewed as tentative.

The intact and non-intact families were compared on income and education. No significant difference was found between the two groups and it can be assumed that they were drawn from a common population with respect to these two variables. The findings of association between education and income,both this in this section and in others with the study, is supported by the works of Wilkins (1963), Lewis (1965), Kahn (1963).

When the relationship between family form and family style-of-life and the integration of these low-income families into the community and neighborhood was examined, the following results were obtained:

(a) Fifty percent of these low-income mothers reported their families moved once within the last five years. The majority of the movement was reported by the non-intact families.

(b) The majority of these low income mothers had a neutral feeling about their neighborhoods. Nearly one-fourth of these mothers felt, however, that it was a very bad place in which to live. A preponderance of non-intact, stable families felt that the neighborhood was a bad place to live.

(c) These low-income families tend to do very little visiting in their neighborhood. The non-intact unstable families tend to do more visiting than any other family forms or family styles.

(d) The majority of these low-income mothers report that they belong to churches in the Washington area. They also report that they attend church three or more times per month. The non-intact, unstable family reports the lowest church attendance.

It was hypothesized that family form and family style-of-life would be related to the resources available and the utilization of these resources by these low-income families. Analysis of the data to test this hypothesis indicated the following:

(a) Almost one-fourth of these low-income families have been on public welfare within the last five years. More unstable, non-intact families report having been on welfare than any of the other family forms and family styles.

(b) Half of these low income families report having had only one job during the last five years. The distribution was examined to determine which family form and family style had proportionately more jobs. The unstable, intact family fell more frequently into this category.

(c) The majority of these families are currently purchasing life insurance. The comparisons between family styles and family forms indicated a high proportion of the stable, non-intact families were not carrying life insurance.

(d) Only one-half of these low income families reported carrying health insurance. Again the non-intact, unstable family had proportionately less health insurance than any other family form or family style.

(e) Few of the families delay getting needed medical care, but only half of the total report receiving needed dental care. Proportionately more of the stable, non-intact families report not receiving needed dental care. A markedly high proportion of the stable, intact families report delaying getting needed dental care.

(f) Over one-third of these families reported lack of money as a pressing problem for the family. Analysis of the data on personal debts indicated that the majority of the respondents report having personal debts. Proportionately, more of the stable non-intact family mothers report personal debts. A markedly higher proportion, however, report that they do not have savings.

(g) Thirty-one of these families felt that they spent the right amount of money on food, clothing, and shelter. More of the non-intact, stable families felt, however, that they did not spend enough on these basic needs.

The hypothesis regarding family form, family style-of-life and the extent of social deviance found within the family was also tentatively accepted. The majority of these low-income mothers did not feel that their children had any serious difficulty with the police and even fewer of them reported that their adolescent sons or daughters had difficulty in school. The mothers in the stable, non-intact families report proportionately more difficulty in school and more difficulty with the police for their children than the other family styles.

The majority of these low-income mothers report that they do not consume alcohol. The unstable, non-intact group, however, reports a higher proportion of alcohol consumption. They also report drinking more frequently on the weekends than do the other family forms and family styles-of-life.

It was hypothesized that family form and family style-of-life would be directly related to the type and reality of goal setting behavior for this group of low-income mothers. This hypothesis was also tentatively accepted because of the following findings:

(a) These low-income mothers were asked what they would like to provide for their children over the next five years. Considerably more of them wanted to provide education for their children and homes for their families. More of the unstable, intact families listed education as what they would want to provide for their children over the next five years. Proportionately more of the stable non-intact mothers wanted to provide homes for their children.

(b) A high percentage of these low-income mothers have occupational aspirations for their sons and daughters that would put them into the business or professional category. Sixteen (28.6 percent) of these low-income mothers, however, have no defined occupational aspirations for their children. A high proportion of the intact, stable mothers have no well defined occupational aspiration for their children. A large number of these mothers feel that their sons and daughters' chances are good or at least 50-50 for attaining these occupational aspirations.

(c) For the most part, these low-income families are renting their current residences. A very high proportion of the unstable non-intact family mothers fell into this category. Conversely, a high proportion of the non-intact stable mothers are purchasing their current residences.

(d) Slightly better than 70 percent of these low-income families want to improve their current housing conditions. Again, the stable, non-intact families tend to be more satisfied with their present residences than does the other family forms and family styles.

(e) Half of them felt that "tomorrow would take care of itself." Proportionately more of the unstable intact families and the unstable, non-intact families agreed with this position, while the converse was true of the non-intact stable families.

Differential responses to intervention efforts were hypothesized to be related to the family form and family styles. This hypothesis was also tentatively accepted. Over half of these low-income families have never heard of the United Planning Organization as of the summer of 1965. Proportionately, more of the non-intact, unstable families had heard of United Planning Organization than had any of the other family forms and family styles. However, only a total of eight of these 56 families 14.3 percent had been involved in the United Planning Organization's programs.

The analysis of data collected on these 56 low-income families led to the tentative acceptance of the hypothesis that family form and family style-of-life is related to: (1) the extent to which low-income families are integrated into the community and neighborhoods; (2) the utilization of resources of the low-income family; (3) the type and reality of goal setting behavior in the low income family; and (4) their knowledge of and response to intervention efforts.

The size of the sample precluded the making of a definitive statement with respect to these families. The findings, however, point up the need to examine techniques of intervention as they relate to different family forms and families styles-of-life. These tentative findings also tend to support the position of Lewis (1961, 1965) that the image of the low-income family as a homogeneous mass is erroneous.

It is anticipated that these findings will help to define and help to focus intervention efforts for low-income families. It would appear, therefore, that if United Planning Organization programs of intervention are to be effective in increasing the quality of life for the poor, consideration should be given to what types of program of intervention best serve the needs of a specific family form and a specific family style.

The differential responses to the factors examined in this study lends support to the position that economic circumstances is a critical variable in the lives of these families. The position held by Rainwater (1966) is relevant to this issue. He states:

> Unless the major efforts is to provide these kinds of remedies, there is very real danger that programs to "better the structure of the Negro family" by direct intervention will serve the unintended functions of distracting the country from the pressing needs for socio-economic reform and providing an alibi for the failure to embark on the basic institutional changes that are needed to do anything about abolishing both white and Negro poverty. It would be sad, indeed, if after the Negro revolt brought to national prominance the continuing problem of poverty, our expertise....served to deflect the national impulse into symptom-treatment rather than basic reform. If that happens, social scientists will have served those they study poorly indeed.

Chapter Five

The Preschool Studies

Introduction

The ultimate goal of the preschool program for economically disadvantaged children is to prepare them better for the school experience by compensating for deficiencies postulated to be present in this population when they enter the school system. It is expected that children involved in such a program would, when subsequently compared with comparable children not afforded such experience, demonstrate at least the following:

1. An increase in intellectual and psychomotor functions
2. An increase in the ability to verbalize
3. An increase in self-awareness and self-esteem

These differences should be reflected in a number of objectively measurable criteria. The children given a preschool experience should score significantly higher than a comparable group not exposed to the preschool program in the following ways in the first, second, and third grades:

1. Reading ability and reading readiness
2. Writing skill
3. Arithmetic skill

The experimental group (preschool experience) should also demonstrate significantly better school adjustment than the controls (no school experience) and this adjustment should also subsequently be demonstrated by significant differences in school attendance, tardiness record, interpersonal skills, attitude and deportment.

Another function of the preschool program is to orient the parent to the problems and operations of the school. This parental involvement should reflect differences between the parents of the control and experimental youth with respect to: (a) an awareness of the demands of the schooling situation; (b) an awareness of the problems and potentialities of their children; (c) an awareness of their responsibility for facilitating the education of the child; (d) an awareness of the resources available, both within and ancillary to the school, to facilitate the education of the child; (e) confidence in their ability to perform the parent role and an enhanced self-image.

To evaluate definitively the effect of the preschool experience, it will be necessary to obtain outcome criteria six years after first experience with the program. It is important, however, to ascertain the progress of the preschool child at periodic intervals by contrasting both groups (experimental and control) at the end of one year, at the end of two years, at the end of three years, etc. The studies included herein represent an appraisal at the end of the first preschool year.

From the measures used in this study, it should be possible to generate some predictive indices on school performance at later ages for this population. If the theoretical propositions relate to subsequent behavior in a lawful manner, then it seems plausible that a prognosis of school success could ultimately be generated.

The results of analyses of the preschool enrollment and attendance data have been reported in four quarterly statistical reports. These data are summarized below. In addition to the data collected through population accounting, three intensive studies have been conducted on a sample of the preschool population. These additional studies are examinations of some of the variables mentioned above. Specifically they include studies of the home environment and child rearing practices; linquistic ability; and intellectual and spychomotor functioning.

The Population at Intake, Enrollment, and Attendance

Intake

Selection of the preschool population was based on the eligibility requirements established by the United Planning Organization preschool staff. This selection of the population was completed in October, 1964. The net impact research staff, working in collaboration with the preschool staff, randomly assigned the eligible applicants to each of the five preschool centers. The random assignment was stratified according to location, i.e., proximity to the center receiving the application, age, and preference for day-care or nursery. In at least one instance, the number of children applying matched the number that preschool center could accomodate. In other instances, "specials" were allowed admission to the program at the discretion of the program director and the head teacher of a particular center.

There were a total of 248 applicants who were residents of the area. Of these, 184 were assigned to the five preschool centers.

A Preschool Intake Form was developed and administered to the person enrolling the child in the preschool program. This form included data on the child, the parents and present home conditions.

Tables 64 and 65 depict educational levels of the families of the preschool population at intake, for the first five United Planning Organization Preschool Centers.

Table 64 and 65 show that the educational level of the mothers and fathers of the preschool population at intake is, for the majority of the population, at the seventh grade level or below. In the case of the mothers, and exclusive of the ones on whom no information was available, over ninety percent had only seven years of education or less. For fathers of the preschool enrollees, this figure is slightly higher than seventy-five percent. While the percentage of the"no information" is higher for the fathers on this item, slightly higher than thirty-five percent of the fathers on whom information was obtained had four years of schooling or less. An analysis of census data for 1960 indicates that 8.8 percent of the total population twenty-five years of age and older in the eighteen census tracts in the Cardozo School District had completed only one to four years of schooling. The mean age for the mothers and fathers of the total preschool population is 32.5 years.

Table 64

Educational Level of Fathers of Preschool Enrollees by Preschool Center

Educational Level	Preschool Center											
	Augustana		Fides		Galbraith		Saint Stephens		Trinity		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1 - 4 yrs.	16	35.6	15	51.7	17	51.5	15	33.3	2	6.2	65	35.3
5 - 7 yrs.	17	37.8	2	6.9	12	36.3	20	44.4	24	75.0	75	40.8
8 - 9 yrs.	1	2.2	-	--	--	--	2	4.4	2	6.2	5	2.7
No info.	11	24.4	12	41.3	4	12.1	8	17.7	4	12.5	39	21.2
Total	45	100	29	99.9	33	99.9	45	99.8	32	99.9	100	100

Table 65

Educational Level of Mothers of Preschool Enrollees by Preschool Center

	Preschool Center											
	Augustana		Fides		Galbraith		Saint Stephens		Trinity		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Educational level												
1-4 yrs.	14	31.1	11	37.9	19	57.5	18	40.0	14	43.7	76	41.3
5.7 yrs	26	57.7	11	37.9	14	42.4	25	55.5	17	53.1	93	50.5
8-9 yrs.	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	1	3.1	1	.5
No Infor.	5	11.1	7	24.1	--	--	2	4.4	--	--	14	7.6
Total	45	99.9	29	99.9	33	99.9	45	99.9	32	99.9	184	99.9

It can be seen in Table 66 that the two most frequent reasons given by the mothers of the preschool enrollees for wanting their children in the program were "so the child can learn to work, and be with other children" and "so the mother can work." Except for the St. Stephens and Trinity Centers these reasons were given top priority. In the case of St. Stephens, the reasons "so the mother can work" and "get the child ready for kindergarten", occupy equal rank order positions. In the case of the Trinity respondents, priority was given to "get the child ready for kindergarten" and secondly, "so the child can learn to work, play and be with other children.

Table 66

Reason for Enrollment of Child by Preschool Program by Center

Reason	Augustana		Fides		Galbraith		Saint Stephens		Trinity		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
So mother can work	13	28.9	7	24.1	13	39.4	12	26.7	6	18.8	51	27.0
Get ready for kindergarten	6	13.3	1	3.4	1	3.0	12	26.7	11	34.4	31	16.8
To learn to work, be with and/or play with other	18	40.0	8	27.6	8	24.2	10	22.2	9	28.1	53	28.8
Learning language or speech problems	0	0	1	3.4	2	6.1	1	2.2	1	3.1	5	2.7
Child wants or likes school	0	0	1	3.4	7	21.2	3	6.7	2	6.3	13	7.1
Relieve pressure or help family out	2	4.4	5	17.2	0	0	2	4.4	2	6.3	11	6.0
Goof for the child	0	0	4	0	0	1	1	2.2	0	0	5	2.7
Blank	0	0	0	0	1	3.0	0	0	0	0	1	.5
Combination of above	3	6.7	0	0	1	3.0	3	6.7	1	3.1	8	4.3
No information	3	6.7	2	6.9	0	0	1	2.2	0	0	6	3.3
Total	45	100	29	99.8	33	99.9	45	100	32	100	184	99.9

The intake form asked, "Do you (or any one in the family) receive welfare assistance?" The distribution of responses to this question is indicated in Table 67. For all centers combined almost seventeen percent responded "yes" to this question. This is slightly more than two and one-half times the figure of 6.6 percent reported by the United Planning Organization for persons receiving welfare in the Target Area.

Table 67

Welfare Status of Parents of Preschool

Enrollees by Center

Welfare Recipient	Augustana		Fides		Galbraith		Stephens		Trinity		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Yes	6	13.3	3	10.3	7	21.2	9	20.0	6	18.7	31	16.8
No	38	84.4	22	75.9	25	75.7	32	71.1	24	75.0	141	76.6
No info.	1	2.2	4	13.7	1	3.0	4	8.8	2	6.2	12	6.5
Total	45	99.9	29	99.9	33	99.9	45	99.9	32	99.9	184	99.9

An examination of data presented in Table 68 shows that the preschool enrollee had a relatively small number of siblings. The median number of siblings for this group is 2.7. If it is assumed that both fathers and mothers are present, then the family would often be a five person family. The family make-up will be discussed in more detail in the child rearing section of this report.

Table 68

Number of Siblings of Preschool Enrollees by Center

Number of Siblings	Center											
	Augustana		Fides		Galbriath		Saint Stephens		Trinity		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
No information	1	2.2	0	0	1	3.0	0	0	0	0	2	1.1
None	4	8.8	3	10.3	1	3.0	4	8.9	1	3.1	13	7.1
1 - 2	17	37.7	12	41.4	9	27.3	21	46.6	21	65.1	80	43.5
3 - 4	11	24.4	7	24.1	15	45.4	8	17.8	9	28.1	50	27.2
5 - 6	9	19.9	5	17.2	4	12.1	11	24.4	1	3.1	30	16.3
7 - 8	2	4.4	2	6.9	3	9.1	1	2.2	0	0	8	4.3
9 or more	1	2.2	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	1	.5
Total	45	99.6	29	99.9	33	99.9	45	99.9	32	99.9	184	100

Enrollment and Attendance

Data for determining the number of absences, dropouts, new enrollees and daily attendance were collected from the five preschool centers on a monthly basis. The intake form was duplicated for all new enrollees.

The sex and racial distribution of the preschool population has remained relatively constant over the nine month school year(Table 69 and 70).

White children comprised four percent of the total enrollment in the first quarter and three percent in the second and third quarters. The average for the year was 96.8 percent Negro and 3.2 percent white. The ratio between male and females remained relatively constant throughout the school year. The yearly average was 50.8 percent females and 49.2 percent males.

Table 69

Racial Distribution of Preschool

Children by Quarters

	First Quarter		Second Quarter		Third Quarter		Yearly Average	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Race								
Negro	157	93.7	224	97.0	221	97.4	200.6	96.8
White	7	4.3	7	3.0	6	2.6	6.6	3.2
Total	164	100	231	100	227	100	207.2	100

The distribution by sex has also remained about the same over the nine month period, almost half were male and half were female.

Table 70

Sex Distribution of Preschool

Children by Quarter

	First Quarter		Second Quarter		Third Quarter		Yearly Average	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Sex								
Female	81	50.6	116	49.8	119	47.6	105.2	50.8
Male	83	49.4	115	50.2	108	52.4	102.0	49.2
Total	164	100	231	100	227	100	207.2	100

Data on the new admissions and dropouts are presented in Table 71. Inspection of these data indicate that during the first three months of day-care and nursery sessions, there were only four new admissions and 24 dropouts. Half of this number were children who moved out of the Cardozo target area. New admissions less the dropouts represent an enrollment increase of 67 during the first quarter and 25 during the third quarter. Of the original five preschool centers, four had a higher number of new admissions than dropouts. John Wesley which was opened in June, 1965, had an initial enrollment of 29.

Including the initial intake group of 184 children, a total of 378 were admitted to the preschool program. Of this number, 122 or 30.9 percent were dropped. At the end of the school year, a total of 256 children were enrolled in the preschool program.

Table 71

Number of Admissions and Dropouts per Quarter by Center

	First Quarter		Second Quarter		Third Quarter		Total	
	Admitted	Dropped	Admitted	Dropped	Admitted	Dropped	Admitted	Dropped
Centers								
Augustana	3	5	24	6	9	25	36	36
Fides	0	5	19	5	13	9	32	18
Galbraith	1	7	24	4	23	21	48	32
St. Stephens	0	5	7	7	20	13	27	25
Trinity	0	3	19	4	3	4	22	11
John Wesley	-	-	-	-	29	0	29	0
Total	4	24	93	26	97	72	194	122

The absentee rate for the centers was computed by dividing the total number of days the enrollees ahould have been present by the total number of absences and then multiplying by 100. The absentee rate for each of the preschool centers is presented in Table 72. For the nine-month period and for all centers combined, the absentee rate was 25 percent. Fewer absences were recorded during the first three months of school and the rate (.27) was maintained for the second and third quarters. Trinity consistently recorded the lowest rate (Averabe of .14) while St. Stephens had the highest average absentee rate for the nine-month period (.30).

Table 73 show the distribution by residence and by census tracts of the children who were enrolled at the end of each quarter. The largest net gains were made in Census tracts 48, 49, and 32. Census tract 48 consistently had the highest number of children from Census tracts 48 and 49 comprised 38.7 percent of the total preschool population. By the end of the third quarter, fewer than two enrollees were obtained from each of seven tracts (30, 31, 35, 39, 45, 52.1 and 52.2) while data from the 1960 census suggests a considerable number of potential enrollees from these Census tracts.

Table 72

Preschool Absentee Rates by Center per Quarter

Preschool Center		First Quarter	Second Quarter	Third Quarter	Total
Augustana	N=	2,748	2,878	3,060	8,686
	Absences	561	906	988	2,455
	Rates	.20	.31	.32	.28
Fides	N=	1,491	1,807	2,481	5,779
	Absences	263	471	702	1,436
	Rates	.18	.26	.28	.25
Galbraith	N=	1,698	2,051	3,299	7,048
	Absences	337	593	862	1,792
	Rates	.20	.29	.26	.25
St. Stephens	N=	2,462	2,391	3,271	8.124
	Absences	783	700	925	2,408
	Rates	.32	.29	.28	.30
Trinity	N=	1,894	2,209	2,680	6,783
	Absences	222	368	359	949
	Rates	.12	.17	.13	.14
John Wesley	N=	—	—	269	269
	Absences	—	—	177	177
	Rates	—	—	.66	.66
Total	N=	10,293	11,336	15,060	36,689
	Absences	2,166	3,038	4,013	9,217
	Rates	.21	.27	.27	.25

Table 73

Residence by Census Tracts of Preschool Children Enrolled As of the End of Each Quarter

Census Tracts	First Quarter	Second Quarter	Third Quarter
27	15	15	20
28	21	21	20
29	2	3	5
30	1	2	1
31	0	1	1
32	23	39	38
35	4	1	1
36	4	2	4
37	14	22	15
39	0	0	0
43	16	22	13
44	7	11	11
45	0	2	1
48	26	47	55
49	17	31	32
50	3	4	4
52.1	0	2	0
52.2	2	0	0
Non-Target Area	9	6	6
Total	169	231	227*

*Excludes the 29 enrollees for John Wesley

Summary and Conclusions

Initially, there were 248 eligible applicants for the preschool program. Of these, 184 were randomly assigned, where possible, to the five United Planning Organization Preschool Centers. Intake information was obtained from the person enrolling the child in the program. The intake form included items on the child, the parents of the child, ant the child's home conditions.

At intake, the preschool population came from homes where the mean educational level of the parents was the seventh grade. They had two to three siblings.

Their parents wanted them enrolled in the preschool programs so that they could learn to work and be with other children, or to provide the mother an opportunity to go to work. Approximately seventeen percent of the patents of the children initially enrolled in this program were public welfare recipients. This figure is almost three times as high as that reported for the total Cardozo population.

The enrolled population averaged 96.8 percent Negro to 3.2 percent white. Half were make and half were females.

During the course of the preschool year a total of 378 children were admitted tothe United Planning Organization Preschool Centers. Of these, 122 or 30.9 percent dropped out. Many of these children were withdrawn from school because their parents moved from the area.

The absentee rate for the year was 25 per 100 presences. An indication of the relatively strong holding -power of the preschool program is discernable through an examination of the drop-out and absentee data.

The absentee data was confounded by the practice of entering a child's name in the roll book at the time he was accepted for admission and subsequently recording him absent until he reported. In many instances, the child never came and after a two-week-period was dropped, increasing both the dropout rate and the absentee rate. Similar recording procedures were practiced during the summer vacation months. It was difficult to determine whether the child was being withdrawn permanently (i.e., to participate in Head Start), was being temporarily withdrawn for vacation, or whether he was legitimately absent. On this basis, it is safe to assume that the dropout and absentee rates are over-estimates.

A high proportion, 38.7 percent of the preschool children enrolled at the end of the third quarter, were residents of Census Tracts 48 and 49. According to an analysis conducted on 1960 census data, these two census tracts are in the lowest socio-economic areas of the city.

It can be concluded that for the first year of operation, the United Planning Organization Preschool Centers enrolled children from low socio-economic status families and, considering the age level of the population, exhibited relatively low dropout and absentee rates once the children were enrolled.

The Preschool-Intensive Studies

The Sample

One third of the preschool population (60 enrollees) was selected from the original preschool population for intensive study. These children were selected by a simple random selection process which gave each enrollee in the total preschool population of a given center an equal chance of being included in the sample.

The same randomization procedure was followed for replacing those subjects who were originally selected, but on whom measures were not obtained due to absence, illness or uncooperativeness.

The distribution of the sample by Center is as follows:

Preschool Center	Total Enrolled Population	Sample Enrolled	Sample Not Enrolled
Augustana	45	15	2
Fides House	30	10	3
Galbraith	30	10	2
St. Stephens	45	15	6
Trinity	30	10	6
Total	180*	60	19

* At the time of selection, this represented the number currently enrolled in the preschool program.

Originally, 28 applicants who meet the eligibility criteria, but were not enrolled, were available for assignment to the control group. Of this number, nine enrolled in other preschool programs, had moved from the area, or were not otherwise available. The remaining 19 children were included in the control group.

Data analyses have been conducted using four demographic variables--broken homes, overcrowding, number of siblings and combined family income--to determine whether there were differences on these variables, between the preschool children enrolled in school and those not enrolled.

Table 74 shows the distribution of the enrolled and not enrolled children on the broken home variable for whom this datum was available. This table indicates that 36 percent of the children enrolled in the preschool program live in a broken home situation as opposed to 17 percent of the control group children. The difference between these two groups on this variable is not statistically significant (t=1.14).

Table 74

Preschool Status and Home Status

	School Status			
	Not Enrolled		Enrolled	
	N	%	N	%
Broken Home				
Yes	3	17	20	36
No	15	83	37	64
* Total	18	100	57	100

* Complete data were available on 18 of the 19 control group children and on 57 of the sixty enrolled children.

A ratio of overcrowding was computed by dividing the total number of rooms in a household by the number of persons living in that household. Data on the overcrowded homes are presented for the preschool sample in Table 75 which reveals that a high proportion of both the children enrolled in school, as well as those not enrolled live in overcrowded homes. Forty-four percent of those not enrolled and 54 percent of those enrolled live in overcrowded homes. The difference, however, is not statistically significant.

Table 75

Preschool Status and Overcrowding

	Preschool Status			
	Not Enrolled		Enrolled	
	N	%	N	%
Ratio of Over-Crowding				
0.5 - 1.0	10	56	26	46
1.1 - 1.9	8	44	27	47
2.0 - 2.9	0	0	3	5
3.0 - 4.0	0	0	1	2
Total	18	100	57	100

Differences between groups are not significant at the .05 level of probability (t= 1.06)

Although the mean number of siblings for those children enrolled in school (2.00) does not differ statistically from the mean number of siblings of the children not enrolled in the preschool program (3.17), there are, however, more one-child families in the enrolled group. The distribution on this variable is presented in Table 76.

Table 76

Preschool Status and Number of Siblings

Number of Siblings	Preschool Status			
	Not Enrolled		Enrolled	
	N	%	N	%
0	1	6	14	25
1	2	11	12	21
2	4	22	11	19
3	4	22	4	7
4	3	16	4	7
5	2	11	8	14
6	1	6	1	2
7	1	6	0	0
8	0	0	1	2
11	0	0	2	3
Total	18	100	57	100

t = .48, no significant difference between the groups

The per capita income of $750 is frequently used as a cutoff point in poverty programs. Table 77 shows the distribution of the preschool sample on this variable. It can be seen that 44 percent of the children not enrolled and 67 percent of those enrolled are at or below the poverty level when the $750 per capita cutoff point is used. The percentage is much higher for both groups when the $1,000 level is used. The mean per capita income for both groups falls within the $1,000 - $1,249 interval. The difference is not significant when comparison is made between the mean income of the two groups.

Table 77

Preschool Status and Family Income

	Preschool Status			
	Not Enrolled		Enrolled	
	N	%	N	%
Income				
None	2	11	2	3
Under 500	2	11	20	35
500 - 749	4	22	17	29
750 - 999	6	33	7	12
1,000 - 1,240	3	17	4	7
1,250 - 1,449	0	0	3	5
1,450 - 1,699	0	0	1	2
1,700 and above	1	6	3	6
Total	18	100	57	100

t = .43 not significant

A Comparison of total family income produced similar results as those obtained above. The difference between the two groups was not statistically different.

Summary and Conclusion

A stratified random sample of 60 children was drawn from the original population of the five UPO preschool centers. This sample represented approximately one-third of the student population enrolled in each of these centers at the time the sample was drawn. A control group of 20 target area three-and four-year-old children was also drawn. Complete data were available on 57 of the enrolled children and 18 of the children not enrolled in the preschool program.

Four demographic variables were selected for the purpose of determining whether the enrolled and not enrolled preschool groups had been drawn from a common population. The four variables included broken homes, overcrowded homes, number of siblings and income.

A trend is present in these data that favors the mothers of the "not enrolled" group over the "enrolled group" on the variables studied. The four demographic variables, however, did not statistically discriminate between the mothers who had children enrolled in the preschool program and those who did not have children enrolled. The sample was drawn from a common population with respect to the four demographic variables. The two groups can, therefore, be combined where appropriate, for the purpose of analysis.

Home Environment and Child Rearing Practices

The underlying theory of preschool programs for "culturally disadvantaged" children stresses either the "accumulated environmental deficit" or the inadequate socialization of these children. In evaluating the impact of the preschool experience on this preschool population, it was felt necessary to obtain measures which had relevance to these theoretical propositions.

To obtain measures of socialization of the child, an interview schedule was developed. This permitted open-ended questions and sought information on 80 items related to developmental history of the child, child rearing practices, attitudes toward the neighborhood, recreational activities, social activities and the parent's self-esteem in being Negro.

To obtain measures of "accumulated environmental deficits," an observation schedule was constructed. This contained nine home environment categories. Included were esthetic items, intellectual materials, children's materials, condition of home and furniture, order of home, noise level, space utilization and lighting conditions.

The population under study are the mothers of the preschool sample described in a preceding section.

Method

Four persons served as interviewers in this study. The four interviewers varried as to race (2 Negroes, 2 whites), sex (2 males, 2 females), age (21 to 47 years) and education (1 undergraduate, 2 graduate students and 1 who held a Master's degree).

After an orientation and training period the four interviewers visited the home of the mothers not included in the sample for the purpose of conducting a pretest of the interview and observation schedules. Interview and observation schedules were completed on 57 of the experimental group mothers and 18 of the control group mothers. All interviews were tape recorded. Five-point rating scales were devised to transfer raw data from the tape recorded interviews. There were five of these scales. The rating scales allowed for the conversion of an array of qualitative material to a quantified form.

The responses of the mothers were rated by four raters (the same persons who served as interviewers) on two major dimensions. The dimensions were (1) Permissive-Restrictiveness and (2) Acceptance-Rejection. The Permissive-Restrictive dimension contained three scales and the Acceptance-Rejection dimension contained two scales.

An analysis of rating was conducted to determine inter-rater reliability. In the analysis three of the raters listened to 8 taped interviews and rated each of the mothers' responses. To determine reliability of each of three raters, percent agreement and rank order correlations were used.

Criteria for agreement were established: exact point agreement and direction agreement. Direction agreement indicated that for 90 percent of the time, raters agreed on either a high, moderate, or low rating. Exact point agreement showed that three raters agreed on an exact number only about 20 percent of the time, but that two out of three raters agreed about 95 percent of the time.

Rank order correlations showed that the raters were consistently recording similar ratings, as understood by the total score that the raters had on each case.

The 90 percent agreement in direction, and an average rank order correlation of .90, indicated a high degree of inter rater reliability.

Results

As indicated earlier, the Permissive-Restrictive dimension to child rearing was measured by three scales. The first of these scales, Control of Natural Urges, was concerned with such behavior as toilet training, masturbation and othe sexual play. The second scale measuring the Permissive-Restrictive dimension, was labeled, Personal Habits. This was concerned with such behavior as cleanliness, neatness, care of toys and property, duties required, table manners and politeness. The third scale, Aggression Control, was concerned with the child's aggressive behavior toward the parents, siblings and playmates.

The two scales designed to measure the Acceptance-Rejection dimension were concerned with (1) the mothers' involvement in the child's pain and discomfort and (2) the mothers' involvement in an affectional relationship with the child.

The distribution of ratings received by the mothers on these five rating scales is shown in Table 78 and Table 79.

Table 78

Ratings Obtained on the Restrictiveness-

Permissiveness Scales

Rating on the Permissiveness Restrictiveness Dimension	Child Rearing Scale					
	Control of Natural Urges		Control of Agression		Control of Personal Habits	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
Permissive	21	29.6	11	15.5	18	25.4
Moderately Permissive	23	32.4	41	57.7	26	36.6
Restrictive	27	38.0	19	26.8	27	38.0
Total	71	100	71	100	71	100

Note: Although 75 children (57 enrolled, 19 not enrolled) were studied complete data were not always available on the total number. The number will therefore vary for some of the analyses conducted in this section of the chapter.

Examination of the data presented in Table 79 indicates that the preschool mothers included in this sample tended to be rated more restrictive than permissive in their control of natural urges and personal habits of their children. Proportionately more of the mothers, however, are moderately permissive in their control of agression in the child.

Table 79

Ratings Obtained on the Acceptance-Rejection Scales

Rating on the Acceptance-Rejection Dimension	Child Rearing Scales			
	Involvement in the Child's Pain & Discomfort		Involvement in an Affectional Relation	
	N	%	N	%
High Involvement	33	46.5	46	64.8
Moderately Involved	27	38.0	19	26.8
Low Involvement	11	15.5	6	8.4
Total	71	100	71	100

Inspection of the data presented in Table 80 indicates that proportionately more of these preschool mothers were rated as being highly involved in the pain and discomfort and affectional relationship with the child.

The distribution of the rating on "environmental deficits" is presented in Table 80. Inspection of the data presented in this table reveals that almost half of these low income mothers (49.3 percent) were rated as having "little" or no intellectual materials in the home.

Slightly less than two-thirds of these mothers (66.2 percent) were rated as having "some or a "moderate" amount of Material deprivation in the home.

Table 80

Ratings Obtained on Environmental Deficits Scales

Rating on the Extent of Deprivation	The Environmental Deficits Scales			
	Presence of Intellectual Materials in the Home		Extent of Materials Deprivation	
	N	%	N	%
Some	8	11.3	32	45.1
Moderate Amount	28	39.4	15	21.1
Little or None	35	49.3	24	33.8
Total	71	100	71	100

The majority of these mothers (55.7 percent) were rated as having high self-esteem in being Negro. When the high self-esteem category is combined with the moderate self-esteem category, 82.8 percent of these mothers were rated as having self-esteem in being Negro. These data are presented in Table 81.

Table 81

Rating Obtained on Self-Esteem in Being Negro

Self-Esteem in Being Negro	Number	Percent
High Self-Esteem	39	55.7
Moderate Self-Esteem	19	27.1
Low Self-Esteem	12	17.2
Total	70	100

Two of the hypotheses tested were that mothers who differ in their-child-rearing styles, according to their ratings on the child-rearing (1) Permissive-Restrictive and (2) the Acceptance-Rejection dimensions, differ with regard to the demographic variables, broken homes, over-crowding, combined family income, and the number of children in their households.

Treated as independent samples, mothers in different rating categories, i.e., Permissive, Moderately Permissive and Restrictive or Accepting, Moderately Accepting and Rejecting, will not come from the same population.

Similiar hyptheses were tested for "environmental deficits" and self-esteem in being Negro.

The demographic variables were dichotomized for the purpose of conducting the analyses. The median was used for this purpose in the case of income ($3,829) and the number of siblings (2.7). The ratio of 1.0 persons per room was used in dichotomizing the overcrowding variable. In the case of broken homes, the two categories were yes and no.

Chi-square was the statistical test used. Where the cells contained less than five responses chi-square was not computed.

Summary table 82 shows the distribution of chi-square values obtained on (1) The five child Rearing Scales, (2) The two Environmental Deficit Scales, and (3) Self-Esteem in being Negro.

Table 82

Chi-Square Values Obtained on Child Rearing Practices and Demographic Variables

Child Rearing Practices	Demographic Variables			
	Broken Homes	Overcrowding	Income	Number of Siblings
Permissive-Restrictive				
Control of natural urges	.40	.71	.895	.16
Control of Personal Habits	1.98	.26	3.70	.643
Control of Aggression	1.55	.02	1.12	.22
Acceptance-Rejection				
Involvement in child's pain and discomfort	2.10	1.64	6.02*	.90
Involvement in affectional relation with child	.14	1.65	.21	.38
Environmental Deficits				
Presence of Intellectual materials in the home	.05	6.59*	10.21*	-
Material deprivation	.615	5.16	1.27	2.15
Parents self-esteem in being Negro	.205	5.58	.68	2.08

*Indicates a statistically significant difference at/or below the .05 level of probability. Blanks indicate that chi-squares were not computed because some cells contained zero responses.

Examination of the data presented in Table 82 above indicates that no differences were found between the Permissive, Moderate Permissive, and Restrictive mothers with respect to (1) control of natural urges (2) control of aggression and (3) control of personal habits when comparisons were made on each of the dichotomized demographic variables.

The two scales designed to measure the Acceptance-Rejection dimension did not differentiate between the high, moderate and low involvement on the part of the preschool mothers with respect to their (1) child's pain and discomfort and (2) an affectional relationship with the child when comparisons were made on broken homes, overcrowding and number of siblings. A difference was found, however, between income and the extent to which the parents were involved in affectional relationship with their children.

One of the two scales designed to measure environmental deficits, material deprivation, also failed to differentiate between those rated as having high material deprivation and those having little material deprivation when compared on all four of the demographic variables. The environmental deficits scale concerned with the presence of intellectual materials in the home differentiated on overcrowding and income.

Self-esteem in being Negro did not differentate between those with high, moderate and low self-esteem, when these were compared on the dichotomized demographic variables.

The relationship between overcroding and the presence of intellectual materials in the home is presented in Table 83 which shows that of the 50 percent of the mothers who have "little or no" intellectual materials in the home, 34.3 percent live in overcrowded home conditions.

Table 83

Overcrowding and the Presence of Intellectual Materials in the Home

	Intellectual Materials							
	Some		Moderate Amount		Little or None		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Overcrowding								
Yes	1	1.4	13	18.6	24	34.3	38	54.4
No	7	10.0	14	20.0	11	15.7	32	45.7
Total	8	11.4	27	38.6	35	50.0	70	100

When the relationship between combined family income and the extent of the mother's involvement in the child's pain and discomfort is examined, more mothers whose family incomes are above the median show high involvement with their offsprings' pain and discomfort than mothers whose incomes are below the median. The highest percentage of mothers whose family incomes are below the median income of this group fall in the "moderate involvement" category. These data are presented in Table 84.

Table 84

Combined Family Income and the Extent of Parental Involvement in Pain and Discomfort

	Pain and Discomfort							
	Low Involvement		Moderate Involvement		High Involvement		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Income								
Above Median	2	3.0	11	16.4	21	31.3	34	50.7
Below Median	8	11.9	15	22.4	10	14.9	33	49.2
Total	10	14.9	26	38.8	31	46.2	67	99.9

Inspection of Table 85 below, in which a comparison is made between combined family income and the presence of intellectual materials in the home reveals that a majority of the mothers whose incomes fall below the median of the group (35.8 percent) have "little or no" intellectual materials in the home, according to the ratings assigned to their homes.

Table 85

Combined Family Income and the Presence of Intellectual Materials in the Home

	Intellectual Materials							
	Some		Moderate		Little or None		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Income								
Above Median	5	7.4	19	28.4	10	14.9	34	50.7
Below Median	2-	3.0	7	10.4	24	35.8	33	49.2
Total	7	10.4	26	38.8	34	50.7	67	99.9

Summary and Conclusions

The underlying theories attesting to the effectiveness of the preschool experience for culturally disadvantaged youth stresses either "accumulated environmental deficit" or "inadequate socialization."

An open-ended interview was conducted with the mothers of fifty-seven of the preschool enrollees and eighteen of the children not enrolled in school for the purpose of obtaining a measure of socialization of the children included in this study. To obtain a measure of "accumulated environmental deficit" an observation schedule was completed on the home environment of these children. Four interviewers were used to collect the data in this study.

The child rearing practices of the preschool mothers were rated on two dimensions, Permissive-Restrictive and Acceptance-Rejection. The Permissive-Restrictive dimension contained scales concerned with (1) control of natural urges (2) control of personal habits and (3) control of aggression. The Acceptance-Rejection dimension included scales concerned with (1) the mothers' involvement in their children's pain and discomfort and (2) the mothers' involvement in an affectional relationship with their children. The mothers were also rated on their self-esteem in being Negro.

The measure of "accumulated environmental deficit" was obtained by rating the extent to which intellectual materials were present in the home of the preschool child and the extent to which material deprivation was present.

To test the hypothesis that mothers with different child rearing styles do not come from the same parent population, four demographic variables were selected for statistical analysis. These were: broken homes, overcrowding, combined family income and number of children in the home. Chi square was the statistical tool.

The results of the data analysis are summarized below:

(1) The mothers in this group were rated as being more restrictive than permissive in exercising their control over the natural urges and personal habits of their children, but moderately permissive in their exercising control of aggression in these preschool children.

(2) The majority of the preschool mothers were rated as being highly involved in the pain and discomfort of the child.

(3) A markedly high proportion were rated as highly involved in an affectional relationship with the child.

(4) A very high proportion of the homes of these low income mothers were rated as having few or no intellectual materials in the home.

(5) Two-thirds of the homes of these preschool children were rated as having obvious material deprivation.

(6) The circumstances under which these preschool mothers live does not seem to affect their self-esteem in being Negro. Slightly over 80 percent of these mothers were rated as having either high (55.7 percent) or moderate (27.1 percent) self-Esteem in being Negro.

(7) No statistically significant differences were found between the permissive, moderately permissive and the restrictive mothers on control of the child's natural urges, control of aggression, and control of personal habits, when they were compared on four demographic variables, i.e., broken homes, overcrowding, income, and number of siblings.

(8) No differences were found on the scales of the Acceptance-Rejection dimension of child rearing, except on the ratings the mothers received on their involvement in the child's pain and discomfort and the demographic variable, income. Examination of the data revealed that mothers whose combined family incomes were higher than the median family income of the total group showed the greatest amount of emotional involvement in their children's pain and discomfort.

(9) One of the two scales designed to measure environmental deficits differentiated between the rates when they were compared on overcrowding and income. The scale was concerned with the extent to which intellectual materials are found in the home. Examination of the distribution on these two variables indicated that significantly more of the overcrowded homes had little or no intellectual materials present and, as would be expected, their combined family incomes are below the median of the group.

Lewis (1961), in studying the child rearing practices of low-income mothers in the District of Columbia, found that care and control of younger children was not perceived as a problem. Lewis states that the mothers "show confidence, warmth and ability to exercise effective control." He points out, however, that there tends to be an early relinquishing of control by the low-income mother. This sometimes occurs with children as young as five and six years of age. It is quite possible that the moderate control of aggression exhibited by the preschool mothers included in this study represents the beginning of the relinquishment of control on the part of these parents. The dilemma that some of these mothers face in exercising control is apparent in an excert from one of the tape recorded interviews:

> Interviewer: What do you do about it, when he does some of the things you don't allow?
>
> Preschool mother: Sometimes I give him a spanking but, I think that it would be better if I stopped spanking him so much and punish him otherwise. I think it would help a lot because I have just punished him so much it's getting to be nothing; he just don't respond to it now. He just does the same things over again.
>
> Interviewer: We mentioned interrupting adult conversation, what do you do when he does that?
>
> Preschool mother: If he is in the back, in his room playing he will leave his little brother to come up front to do that. I am saying he has the habit of standing in between me and anybody else that I am talking to, trying to see what is going on. For instance, if he was over here now, he would be standing there - instead of going back there playing. A lot of times I will give him a talking to and again if it doesn't do any good I will spank him and put him in his room and tell him to stay there.

The finding with respect to control of aggression is consistent with that reported by Kohn (1963). He points out that working class parents value obedience, neatness and cleanliness, while middle class parents tend to place greater importance on self-control, curiosity, happiness and consideration. He points out further that the working-class parent is likely to punish the child when destructive acts excede the tolerance level of the parent, but the same destructive act may go unpunished when the tolerance level of the parent is not exceded.

The absence of intellectual materials, overcrowding and the differences which tend to favor the high income mothers becoming involved in the child's pain and discomfort is supported by other fingings. For example, Deutsch (1964), has indicated, the homes of low-income families tend to have a limited range of objects that are present in these homes.

The implication of the finding on the income variables, is that when income increases there is a greater likelihood that the mother's involvement with her children will also increase.

It may be concluded that those low-income mothers whose economic circumstances are improved find themselves with not only more disposable income to channel into home artifacts and intellectual materials, but are better prepared psychologically to devote more energy to the rearing of their children.

The Language Study

One of the major reasons for conducting a study on the language behavior of the preschool population is the need to identify the impact of the preschool experience on verbal behavior.

A significant increase in vocabulary following a reasonable length of time spent in a verbally oriented preschool program might be expected because of the increase array of materials and objects with which the child comes in contact. It is expected that the content of the school program would provide verbal and behavioral distinctions of objects and materials necessary for full verbal development. If this is accomplished, then there should be a corresponding increase in the child's vocabulary in a number of syntactical categories.

It may be that the real value in a good school program is the development of the child's cognitive processes (the ability to make fine discriminations among objects and elementary concepts), and in all probability, results in the acquisition of a new vocabulary. Ideally, the preschool program should strengthen the relation between the acquisition of concepts and verbal skills. It is the relation between the acquisition of concepts and the acquisition of verbal skills that ultimately must be studied.

The present study may be considered a pilot study, in the sense that it is concerned with the development of instruments and techniques for collecting language samples of "culturally disadvantaged" preschool children. Another concern, however, is the development of baseline data from which a judgement may ultimately be made on the effect of the preschool experience on cognitive and linguistic development.

The population for this study is the same sample of preschool enrollees described in the previous section of this chapter. Three psychologists served as examiners in this study.

Method

Variables and Measuring Instruments

The first variable of interest was vocabulary, and for this the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT) was chosen. The procedure for the administration of the PPVT has been standardized. The child is shown a series of plates, each one of which has four picture objects. The examiner says the name of one of the objects and the child's task is to point to the picture of the named object. The score derived from this measure is called the Receptive Vocabulary Score. This differentiates it from the score for vocabulary spontaneously elicited which is called the Expressive Vocabulary Score.

The Receptive Vocabulary score is derived from the sum of the correct answers given to the point at which the child has been wrong on six out of eight consecutive plates. This sum is called the raw score. The normative tables are entered to derive the child's receptive mental age and I.Q.

If the task is changed somewhat, a different kind of behavior is expected. Instead of asking the child to point to the correct object, the examiner points to one of the pictures and asks the child to tell him what it is. This procedure reverses that of the Receptive Score procedures. The task now is to identify the significant properties of the picture (independent of its relations to the other pictures) and then to select the words from his verbal repertoire. Since this does not require that he communicate within the framework of the examiners' language it gives the child an opportunity to communicate freely in his own language.

The nature of the task in this procedure is different from the task in the standard procedure. Each set of scores was transformed into a common standard score for the purpose of making comparisons. There were no available norms for the scoring of this second procedure. Consequently, a scoring system was established. The scores were evaluated for their reliability.

The second major linguistic variable of interest was the semantic character of speech of the sample, that is, the patterns of meaning which are carried by the words used by the child. These have to do with the referents for words. It is assumed that with increasing maturity, a child will use increasingly complex word-referent relations. The change in usage of these relations are expected to reflect the rate of change of the child's verbal ability.

The literature is replete with studies examining the relationship between verbal responses and stimulus words (word association tests). The standard procedure is to administer a series of selected words to the subject, ask for the most immediate and spontaneous verbal response possible, and score the response according to its semantic character. Responses have been scored according to their grammatical similarity or dissimilarity to the stimulus word, and many other categories. Little work has been conducted in this area with preschool children. A series of words were selected and administered to this population. The words represented a number of grammatical categories (mass nouns, count nouns, transitive and intransitive verbs, adjectives, and adverbs). They were administered to the children under standard instruction and the responses were to categorized according to their semantic character. Scoring was made on the grammatical similarity of stimulus and response words, response preferences, variability of response preferences, and superordinate-subordinate concept usage. It was expected that each of these measures would tap the verbal maturity of the child.

The last variable of interest in this study was the communicative skill by which the child transmits information and utilizes feedback from this transmission. This investigation was limited to observations of the spontaneous speech of the child in situations in which he is involved in exchanging information.

The first technique involved stimulating the child to talk about the Blacky Pictures. This is a projective technique consisting of a series of cards on which are depicted drawings of social scenes in the form of dogs interacting with each other. In each drawing, the same dog, Blacky, is found in a different situation. These cards have been found to be very useful in eliciting diagnostic material about children because they seem to depict situations which children find significant and easy to talk about. The interest in the present investigation, however, was not in the dynamics of the responses. It lay rather in the child providing a verbal message (description of each Blacky Picture) to the examiner. Each child was asked to describe the picture, tell what was happening, and what was going to happen. The responses of each child were taped recorded, transcribed and analyzed.

The second method of speech collection was developed by the research staff in an attempt to get samples of true conversation. The techniques involved seating the preschool enrollee on one side of a table with three or four other children from the same group on the other side. The examiner was seated near the child under study, with a microphone placed nearby. A series of questions were asked and tasks, designed to stimulate conversation and activity on the part of the other children at the table, were used. Some of the conversation was designed to be directed at the child under study who inevitably became drawn into the conversation. Speech was generated by the "natural action" occuring in the social setting.

Results

It was not feasible to make comparisons between the enrolled group and the not enrolled group because of the unavailability of a large number of the members of the not enrolled group of children. Of the original 19 children who were given the Stanford-Binet, only ten were administered the verbal materials.

Of the original 60 children in the enrolled group, 10 had dropped out of the program and three were completely uncooperative. The verbal battery was administered to 44 preschool children.

(a) PPVT-Receptive. The mean I.Q. for this population was 81. The standard deviation was 17.48. The PPVT mean score was markedly lower than the mean score obtained on the Stanford-Binet for this population. Five of the children in the sample showed a discrepancy favoring the PPVT (range: 3 to 40 IQ points). The remaining 39 subjects showed discrepancies ranging up to 65 IQ points in favor of the Binet test.

(b) PPVT-Expressive. This technique required the development of administration and scoring procedures. A number of administration procedures were tested before the final one was established. This involved the use of a series of standard questions and probes designed to elicit the child's verbal description of the PPVT plate (Form B of the PPVT was used for this part of the battery.) Scoring was based on a manual developed by the staff which gives instructions for a zero, one or two point score.

Each response was scored by two trained raters. Better than 90 percent agreement was achieved between these two raters: The mean Expressive Score for this sample was 36.29 with a standard deviation of 11.88.

A comparison of the Receptive Scores with these scores indicates that these measures are tapping a somewhat different function (R=.54.). This is also expressed in the discrepancy scores between these variables. In 16 cases, the subject was in the upper half of one distribution and in the lower half of the other distribution. This suggests that some third variable is depressing the scores in one way for some subjects and in another way for other subjects.

For tentative analysis, the population was divided at the median (IQ 99). A trend emerges with this division. The higher IQ children tend to do better on the E than the R (mean discrepancy of .30), whereas there is no distinction between the R and the E scores for the IQ (mean discrepancy of .06 in favor of R). To examine this trend further, the population was divided into the top and bottom 20 percent on the IQ scale (those above IQ 110 and those below IQ 86), and the R-E discrepancies re-examined. It should be noted that the N in each of these groups is severely reduced and that this imposes restrictions on interpretation. The high IQ group, in all but two cases, had higher scores on the E than on the R (mean discrepancy .84). The low IQ group showed a very slight tendency to have better R than E scores, but this is not a significant tendency (mean discrepancy of 18 in favor of R).

Analysis of these data has indicated that the Receptive form shows rather large discrepancies with the Stanford-Binet IQ. The Expressive form also shows a discrepancy, although not as large as the Receptive. Discrepancy scores between Expressive and Stanford-Binet scores can not be determined directly because IQ scores for Expressive are not available. However, correlations between these two are low (.47) indicating that they may be measuring different functions.

(c) The Word Association Test. It was anticipated that a syntactical measure based on the similarity between the form of the stimulus word and the form of response word would follow a sequential pattern.

The preschool enrollees were almost completely uniform in their response. Ninety-five percent of all 1,656 responses (mean of 90 percent for all subjects) were nouns. The tendency to respond with nouns to all stimulus words was so great as to eliminate the possibility of scoring for the same or different form relative to the stimulus word.

A comparison of subjects on the Stanford-Binet IQ, Expressive and Receptive PPVT did not reveal any difference in this pattern.

(d) Conversation measures. Both the Blacky and the spontaneous speech techniques proved to be popular, stimulating, but very time consuming, procedures. In both instances, the children were cooperative and verbal. The materials used were appropriate to their interests and little reticence was observed. The major problem was the amount of time needed for the collection of the 30 speech samples from each child. This included the collection first of the ten samples which were not counted, as well as, the subsequent 30 test samples. Since all samples were collected in the preschool setting, it became apparent that no more than two children could be tested each day on either instrument.

The cursory analysis of speech generated by the Blacky Picture reveals essentially the same pattern as that generated by the spontaneous speech technique described above. This is true despite the different content of the two procedures. The spontaneous speech technique focused on the interpersonal conversation recorded in a relatively spontaneous group situation. The Blacky situation involved the subject, the Blacky card, and the experimenter.

All of the children were taped using the Blacky pictures and 30 of the 47 children were recorded in the spontaneous speech situation. Analyses of approximately half of these transcribed tapes has been completed. A total of 440 speech units were generated by the Blacky and 528 units generated in the spontaneous speech situation.

Summary and Conclusions

The Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test (PPVT), a Word Association Test, and The Blacky Projective Test were administered by three psychologists to 44 experimental group (preschool enrollees) and control group children (not enrolled in preschool) for the purpose of obtaining a measure of their present linguistic abilities. In addition, language samples were collected from 30 of the preschool enrollees.

The data collected by the above techniques were analyzed. Comparisons were not made, however, between the children enrolled in school and those not enrolled because data was not obtained on almost half of the children not enrolled in the program.

The major findings of this study are:

(a) The mean IQ obtained on the PPVT was 81.

(b) A mean discrepancy score of 17.5 IQ points was found between the scores obtained on the Stanford-Binet and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary test.

(c) When administered the Word Association test, the preschool child in this population responded with nouns markedly more often than with any other word form.

(d) The Blacky Projective Test and conditions under which "spontaneous" speech was elicited produced a considerably large number of speech units.

When the preschool children were grouped into high achievers and low achievers by the score they obtained on the Stanford-Binet, both groups received lower scores on the PPVT.

Correlations between the PPVT and Stanford-Binet IQ (which are reported in the PPVT manual as being .75 for their standardization population) is .32 for the present population. It seems plausible to assume that some factor is unsystematically affecting performance on the PPVT.

It is contended that the method of test administration, as well as, the content of the stimulus materials used in the PPVT acted to depress the performance of this low socio-economic status preschool population on this test. Vocabulary is considered one of the best specific measures of general intelligence. It seems likely, however, that the PPVT is measuring something more than vocabulary in one instance and less than vocabulary in another.

It was stated earlier, that, the child is shown a series of plates, each one of which has four pictured objects. The examiner says the name of one of the objects and the child's task is to point to that picture object. The child is not required to name the object; he is required to point to the object, named by the examiner. This administrative technique from which the PPVT IQ is derived is measuring both more than and less than vocabulary. It is measuring more than vocabulary in the sense that the child may not really know or understand the word said by the examiner, but may be able to decide among the four pictures which is the correct one nevertheless. It is less than a vocabulary measure because the child may be responding to a stimulus word which he cannot use in a communicative situation.

Moreover, the anxiety experienced by the child, which may result from his not knowing a given object, may or may not be communicated to the examiner simply because the child has not verbally communicated with the examiner. This anxiety may very well act to depress the performance of the child on this test.

Further, there is some evidence from the work of Deutsch (1964) that children from deprived backgrounds do not verbalize well in response to words alone.

Both of the measures used to elicit conversational responses from these preschool children proved to be popular with the children, as well as, producing useful language. The children tended to respond almost unanimously with nouns on the word association test.

Comparison of the children by Stanford-Binet IQ, Expressive or Receptive PPVT did not reveal any differences in this pattern. It is not clear whether this finding is typical of the present population or a function of the words and method of administration employed in the present investigation.

It would be of value to compare performance of children, for whom no discrepancy between PPVT and Stanford-Binet IQ is found with the present population on this word association test. If the present population is, in fact, deficient, compared to children of the same age, then there would be confidence in the fact that the word association test is a base line measure of verbal functioning and of value in measuring the impact of the nursery school experience.

It is of interest that these findings are related to those of Ervin (1957) who found in presenting various form classes to children in kindergarten, the first, third and sixth grade that the youngest children gave 48 percent noun responses to the word hand while the sixth grade children gave 79 percent noun responses to this word. The younger children also gave more phrase responses to verbs. They tended to respond with articles plus nouns to verbs.

These findings tend to corroborate the work of Deutsch and his colleagues at the Institute of Developmental Studies. Reissman (1964) in summarizing some of the findings of Deutsch, reports that deprived children showed poor use of verbs, their receptive language tends to be better than their expressive language, i.e. they tend to understand more language than they speak, they exhibit a surprising ability for phantasy and they express themselves best in spontaneous, unstructured situations.

Intellectual and Psychomotor Functioning

One of the stated objectives of the United Planning Organization Preschool program for disadvantaged children was to provide an opportunity for cognitive growth and development in these children. This was to be accomplished through the systematic introduction of carefully selected materials, situations and techniques in "ever-increasing levels of difficulty and challenge."

This objective of the preschool program is based on current theory regarding the cognitive development of the "culturally disadvantaged" child. The theory contends that the environment in which low socio-economic status children live acts to retard their intellectual development. The culturally enriched preschool program is designed, therefore, to stimulate the cognitive development of these children.

The purposes of this study were: (1) to appraise the current level of intellectual and psychomotor functioning of a sample of preschool children from low socio-economic status families in the Cardozo School District, (2) to determine whether changes in intellectual and psychomotor functioning occur for this group of preschool children over time and (3) to determine whether the changes, if they occur, are significantly different from a comparable group of children not exposed to the preschool experience.

Method

The population under study has been described in an earlier section of this chapter. The Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test Form L-M was used to assess the intelligence level of this population.

The measure of psychomotor functioning used in this study consisted of the number of months credit earned on the psychomotor or non-verbal subtests at the year V level of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test Form L-M. These subtests are: Picture Completion, Folding a Triangle, Copying a Square, Pictoral Similarities and Differences II, Patience , Rectangles, and if appropriate, Tying a Knot. It should be pointed out that scores obtained on these subtests are not to be interpreted as the psychomotor mental age of the child. Similarly the derived scores do not represent the maximum psychomotor abilities of each child. These subtests were selected because they were considered as representative of the level of psychomotor functioning of the child. Measures of psychomotor functioning were obtained because it is assumed to be the most reliable prediction of school achievement for this age group.

Four trained psychological examiners administered the Stanford-Binet to the sample population. The group consisted of three white female examiners and one Negro male examiner.

The teachers of the preschool centers were emotionally warm, friendly and outgoing persons who had done an excellent job of preparing the children for "playing games" (testing). There were some instances of fearfulness and restlessness in the children. The problems (understanding oral directions, motivation and interest, short attention span, shyness, negativism and fatigue to name some) which examiners usually encounter in testing preschool age children were also present. If a child behaved in such a way as to invalidate his test results, another child was substituted for him or her at that time.

The tests were administered during the hours of 9:30 A.M. to 12:00 P.M. Most of the testing was conducted in comfortable, private rooms, removed from the rooms in which children were engaged in regular preschool activities. The results reported below are based on data obtained under the above mentioned conditions. The interval between pre and posttesting was seven months.

Results

Table 86 shows the mean I.Q.'s prior to and subsequent to exposure to the preschool experience. These are given for the 40 children on whom both scores were obtained. The mean I.Q. of the group increased by approximately three points, which is not statistically significant.

Table 86

Pre and Post Stanford Binet Test Results

Stanford-Binet	Sample Size	Mean	Sample Variance	Mean Difference	T	Level of Significance
Test I	40	96.36	243.78	3.27	1.96	NS
Test II	40	99.63	197.63			

Table 87

Mean Pre and Post Test Scores and Sex of

Preschool Child

	Sample Size	Mean	Sample Variance	Mean Difference	t	Level of Significance
Females	17	94.1176	190.05	7.80	1.74	NS
Males	23	100.0148	195.01			

After obtaining the mean I.Q. for each child on both the pre and post-test, a comparison was made between the performance of males and females. The results of this comparison (Table 88) indicates that while the mean I.Q. of the males was six points higher than that of the females, this difference was not statistically significant. Similar comparisons were made to determine sex differences on the pretest and post-test.

This analysis yielded a "t" of 1.30 for the pretest and a "t" of 1.57 for the posttest, neither of which is significant at the .05 level of probability.

There was a marked increase in the psychomotor scores from Test I to Test II. It can be seen in Table 88 that this difference is significant at less than the .001 level of confidence.

Table 88

Pre and Post Psychomotor Performance Scores

Stanford-Binet Sub-Test	Sample Size	Mean	Mean Difference	Variance of Difference	t	Level of Significance
Test I	40	1.48	.88	.20	4.44	.001
Test II	40	2.35				

The average family income for the children who had taken both tests was $4,448.90. The data tend to indicate a positive relationship between family income and mean I.Q. The correlation between income and I.Q. is .39. Although the positive correlation of .39 is relatively low, it is significant at the .05 level of confidence.

When an analysis was conducted using the median income, statistically significant differences in I.Q. were found for those above the median income and those below the median income for the group.

The median income for this group was $3,829.00. The children whose family income was above the median showed a higher average I.Q. than the children with family income below the median. Inspection of Table 89 indicates that the difference between the two groups is significant at the .05 confidence level.

Table 89

Mean Test Scores of Enrollees with Family Income above and below the Median

Income	Sample Size	Mean	Sample Variance	t	Level of Significance
Mean I.Q. above median income	20	100.28	250.54	2.01	.05
Mean I.Q. below median income	19	94.97	142.14		

Table 90 shows a comparison between the Stanford-Binet test performance of the preschool enrollee and the children not enrolled during the different testing periods (time and staff limitations precluded a post test of the not enrolled group). There were no statistically significant differences for the following comparisons: (1) results obtained on the first testing of the enrolled group with the results obtained on the not enrolled group; (2) the average I.Q.'s of the first and second testing of the enrolled group with the first testing of the not enrolled group.

Table 90

Selected Comparisons of the Test Results of the Experimental Group and Control Group

Comparisons	N	Mean	Sample Variance	t	Level of Significance
Not Enrolled (Test I)	19	98.84	202.25	.70	NS
Enrolled (Test I)	40	96.36	233.36		
Not Enrolled (Test I)	19	98.84	202.25		
Enrolled (Test I & II)	40	98.03	199.55	.30	NS

The fact that the children in this sample received their preschool experience at five different centers leaves room for speculating on the relative effectiveness of the five centers in bringing about changes in test performance.

An analysis of variance was conducted to determine the existence of this relationship. The results obtained indicated that there no statistically significant differences. The preschool population, with respect to I.Q., were drawn from a common population from the centers. The obtained results indicate that: (1) the experience gained at the respective centers did not differ statistically; and (2) the interaction between the children's test performance and preschool experience was not statistically different from center to center. Preschool experience from center to center was not statistically a factor influencing pre and posttest performance.

Summary and Conclusions

The Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test (Form L-M) was used to assess the intellectual functioning of the preschool sample. Psychomotor performance was measured by selected sub-tests of the Stanford-Binet. Sixty of the children enrolled were tested at the beginning of the school year and 40 were tested again seven months later. Nineteen of the children not enrolled in preschool were also tested at the beginning of the year. Analyses of the test results for the 40 who were tested twice indicated the following:

1. The children in this population scored within the average range (90-109) of intelligence with a mean I.Q. score of 96.3 on that first testing and a mean of 99.6 on the second testing. The 3.3 mean increase in I.Q. was not statistically significant.

As indicated in the Language Study Section of the Preschool Intensive Studies the mean I.Q. obtained on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was 81. The pretest and posttest scores obtained on the Stanford-Binet Test of Intelligence show a discrepancy of 15.3 on the pre tests and 18.6 for the posttest over the mean score obtained on the Peabody Picture Vocubulary test. The results of the PPVT would indicate that these children are functioning at the borderline level while the Stanford-Binet would classify them within the average range of intelligence.

Continued exposure to a culturally enriched preschool program should either help to insure against a regression in measured I.Q.

for this population, or increase the cognitive functioning of this population, and thereby possibly result in an increase in measured I.Q. and decrease in whatever factors are operating to depress the I.Q. obtained on the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test.

2. There was no statistically significant difference in the scores obtained by boys and girls, although the boys scored slightly higher (100) than the girls (94).

This finding is not in agreement with what other studies have shown. Freeman (1963), points out that girls as a group, score higher than boys on the standardized test of intelligence until about age six or seven.

3. Comparisons of the pre and posttest psychomotor performance revealed a statistically significant increase in performance during the second testing. A factor which must be considered in any interpretation made of these findings is the normal physiological maturation of the preschool child which may produce increased muscular coordination and/or general improvement in psychomotor ability. Another factor which must be considered is the nature and the effect of the play activity which is an integral part of the preschool curriculum. Much of the play activity centers around some activity such as painting, building blocks and moving toys all of which would promote an improvement in psychomotor performance. A final and very significant factor has to do with the nature of the tests used to measure psychomotor performance. It is

necessary to undertake a rigorous examination of the sub-tests in an effort to determine their reliability in measuring psychomotor functioning and their predictive value with respect to subsequent school achievement.

4. When the children, who are enrolled in school, were separated into groups of family incomes above and below the median for the group, the children in the group above the median scored significantly higher than those in the group below the median.

The literature is replete with studies attesting to the association between income and intelligence. Parents with higher socio-economic status are able to provide more cognitive stimulation for their children than parents of lower socio-economic status.

The fact that this difference would be expressed with families whose median incomes is less than $900 above the $3,000 poverty cut-off point has implications for the planner and the researcher.

5. When the averaged pretest and posttest scores obtained by those children who had been exposed to the preschool were compared to those children who had not been exposed to the experience no statistically significant differences were found between the two groups.

The absence of a statistically significant gain in I.Q. of the children enrolled in school over those not enrolled should not be interpreted as being indicative of a lack of effectiveness of the preschool experience in stimulating cognitive development. As indicated earlier, it is highly possible that the effects of this experience may not be discernable until much later. Deutsch (1964-b) contends that the effect of the preschool experience is more likely to differentiate between the two groups significantly at the fifth grade level than it is at the first grade level. Some differentiation, however, does occur at the first grade level.

This examination of the I.Q.'s of the enrolled group of the preschool children indicates that there has been no regression in their intellectual functioning as measured by the Stanford-Binet Test of Intelligence, during the seven month interval between the two test administrations.

6. When the possible differential effect that a particular preschool center might have on intellectual performance of the preschool enrollee was examined, no statistically significant differences were found between centers. This preschool sample was drawn from a common population with respect to broken homes, overcrowding, number of siblings and combined family income. The experience gained at the five different United Planning Organization preschool centers did not differentially affect the intellectual performance over the first seven months of exposure to these centers for these children whose backgrounds are essentially the same.

It should be re-emphasized that to measure the ultimate effect of this preschool experience, it will be necessary to obtain evaluative criteria six years after exposure to the program. It is also important to ascertain the progress of these children at periodic intervals and to contrast their progress with the progress of the children not exposed to the preschool experience.

Again, from the measures taken in this study, it may be possible to generate some predictive indices of school performance at later ages for this population.

Chapter Six

The Population Accounting

Social researchers have recently expressed an increased interest in the desirability of developing a fund of data on persons living under conditions of social and economic deprivation. The term "data bank" has been used in this context. A researcher or agency "deposits" data which he has been collecting on a person, a family or an area in the data bank. The individual investigator or agency can go to the data bank and request a withdrawal of part, or all, of the data collected on a target population. Such a general fund of human and ecological data is particularly useful since it tends to eliminate duplication of effort. This allows for the identification of many kinds of populations without going through costly and time consuming enumerations and surveys. It can be designed flexibly enough to allow for continuous expansion both in terms of different kinds of data on the same subject, as well as different kinds of data on different subjects or populations.

Population accounting was built into the design of this series of studies to meet immediate and ongoing service needs, to lay the groundwork for the future establishment of a data bank, and to provide the basis for more directly establishing the relationship outcomes and UPO intervention efforts. For example, if it should be found that juvenile delinquency rates declined in the target area, an inference could be drawn which attributed, at least part of this decline in delinquency, to target area programs. The testing of such an inference falls within the province of both the adolescent cohort study and the population accounting study.

In meeting the ongoing and service needs of UPO, population accounting provided basic information on a quarterly basis about the participants in the UPO action programs. Three types of data were provided:

1. An accounting of all contacts* made by UPO target area programs.
2. The distribution of demographic characteristics of persons contacted.
3. The nature and frequency of involvement, i.e., number of individual and family contacts with UPO services.

Method

Instrument

The instruments developed for this study of net impact have undergone several revisions. Standardized procedures and definitions were arrived at as a result of joint meetings between UPO and the research staff.

All of the data reported in the quarterly statistical reports, except preschool data were extracted from information supplied by Neighborhood Development Center staffs on the several reporting instruments that were jointly developed. Five forms were developed for collection of these data. These forms included the following:

Initial Intake Record

This form was completed by the intake and/or other administrative personnel of each Neighborhood Development Center (NDC) the first time a person presented himself for service or participation in any UPO sponsored activity. The following information was requested:

Demographic

(1) Name, address, and the telephone number

(2) Date of birth, marital status, age, sex, race, religion

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* Contact was jointly defined by net impact and UPO staff as a face to face or telephone encounter with an individual who resides in the Cardozo area by any employee of the NDC who obtained the full name and address of the person. This definition includes mass meetings at which area residents, entrepreneurers, agency and/or organization represeantatives attended.

(3) Educational achievement and/or status

(4) Occupation and employment status

(5) Income and its source

(6) Length of residence in the District of Columbia

(7) Name, age and relationship of household members

(8) Date of contact

Program

(1) Services requested

(2) Referrals

(3) Disposition

This information was requested only once and several copies were made at intake.

Individual Contact Record

This form was completed by any NDC employee each time a contact was made with a person residing in the target area. It asked only the date, name, address and phone number of the person being contacted.

Participation Roster

The participation roster was filled out by participants at meetings where more than five persons other than NDC staff were present. These meetings usually related to community organization, but the roster was also used at other meetings. Names and addresses were obtained.

Monthly Participation Roster

This form was completed by any NDC staff person for any regularly recurring meeting at which the same persons usually participated, e.g. block clubs, associations, civic groups etc. Net Impact personnel also used this form to obtain attendance, admission and dropout data on preschool children. In addition, NDC Directors used the form to report the status of the UPO indigenous employees. Only the name of each participant, date of admission and/or dropout, and number of absences during a specified period were requested on this form.

Change in Status Record

This report was completed by any UPO staff person to whom a change in status of an area resident was made known. The most important changes to be noted were changes in address and changes in name.

Procedures

Data Collection

As each new component of a Neighborhood Development Center program became operational, the director of the NDC arranged a meeting between the staff responsible for the new component and research personnel to explain the use of the reporting forms. On a specific day of each week, all of the reporting forms completed during the preceeding seven days by each component of the Neighborhood Development Centers were collected and delivered to the Research Office.

Data Preparation and Storage

This procedure aimed at accurate and efficient data preparation, storage and retrieval. The information was extracted, coded, punched onto IBM cards, verified, filed and cross-referenced on a regular basis. Much of the work was reduced to task units for maximum utilization of indigenous research aides and Neighborhood Youth Corp Workers.

Consistent with the concept of a data bank, each participant, whose name and address was obtained, was assigned a permanent identification number. To identify target area participation of families, another number, a Family Profile Number (FP#) was assigned when there was evidence that two or more members of the same family were involved in UPO programs.

A new card was punched each time a name and address appeared on any of the reporting forms, except the change in status form. From the initial intake record, an envelope was made which listed the names of all of the members of the household. This envelope became the record of participation for all members of that family. Both alphabetical and numerical files were maintained. The envelopes were filed in alphabetical order by the last name of the first individual in a family. When there was a member of a family whose last name was different from the other members of that family, a 'dummy' envelope was made up as a cross-reference. A numerical file was kept of all identification numbers used and the person to whom the number had been assigned. In addition, an alphabetical file by last name was maintained in order to facilitate accurate assignment of identification and family profile numbers.

Findings

The tables which follow contain selected data obtained in the population accounting study during the period November 1, 1964 through October 31, 1965.

Distribution of Contacts

Although the first quarter included the months of November, December and January, Neighborhood Development Center activity did not actually begin until January. The first quarter, therefore, represents activity during only one month of operation.

The community organization and neighborhood worker component at Neighborhood Development Center One (Table 91) contributed the largest percentage, 69.9 percent of the contacts made during the one-year-period. Social services, including the intake functions, accounted for 12.5 percent of the contacts. The total number of contacts made in the other six components, excluding the miscellaneous category, is 15.1 percent . The miscellaneous category for Neighborhood Development Centers consists primarily of Community Services Project activities, Housing Surveys, and petition signatures.

Table 91

Contacts by Component and Quarter for Neighborhood Development Center One

Component	First Quarter		Second Quarter		Third Quarter		Fourth Quarter		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Community Organization	41	35.0	1,252	61.0	4,788	60.8	15,247	74.4	21,328	69.9
Consumer Education	45	38.5	118	5.8	116	1.5	238	1.2	517	1.7
Credit Union	0	-	30	1.5	85	1.1	1,190	5.8	1,305	4.3
Employment	0	-	178	8.7	235	3.0	620	3.0	1,033	3.4
Housing	4	3.4	163	7.9	163	2.1	605	3.0	935	3.1
Neighborhood Legal Services Project	1	.9	91	4.4	238	3.0	64	0.3	394	1.3
Social Service	26	22.2	220	10.7	1,307	16.6	2,249	11.0	3,802	12.5
Newcomer Program	0	-	0	-	160	2.0	259	1.3	419	1.3
Miscellaneous	0	-	0	-	778	9.9	2	.01	780	2.5
Total	117	100.0	2,052	100.0	7,870	100.0	20,474	100.0	30,513	100.0

Data on the contacts made by NDC Two are presented in Table 92. The community Organization and the social service components were the only ones that were fully operational by the end of the third quarter. No contacts were reported for the credit union, housing, legal or newcomer components and only a small number of contacts were reported for consumer education and employment until then. Although, the other components expanded in their activity in the fourth quarter, the community organization and social service components together still accounted for nearly 60 percent of the total contacts made by this center. The 28.8 percent reported in the miscellaneous category is composed primarily of contacts made with area residents during housing and preschool surveys.

Table 92

Contacts by Component and Quarter for

Neighborhood Development Center Two

Component	First Quarter		Second Quarter		Third Quarter		Fourth Quarter		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Community Organization	119	83.8	69	34.0	996	20.7	1,299	23.1	2,413	23.0
Consumer Education	3	2.1	20	10.0	29	.6	464	8.7	516	4.9
Credit Union	0	-	0	-	0	-	1	0.0	1	0.0
Housing	0	-	0	-	1	.1	398	7.5	399	3.8
Employment	0	-	2	1.0	15	.3	257	4.8	274	2.6
Neighborhood Legal Services Project	0	-	0	-	0	-	49	0.9	49	0.5
Social Service	20	14.1	96	47.0	927	19.2	2,765	51.9	3,808	36.3
Newcomer Program	0	-	0	-	0	-	8	0.2	8	0.1
Miscellaneous	0	-	16	8.0	2,852	59.2	153	2.9	3,021	28.8
Total	142	100	203	100	4,820	100	5,324	100	10,489	100

As Table 93 shows the credit union component and the newcomer program at Neighborhood Development Center Three reported only minimal contact with target area residents. The employment component, however, made 24.1 percent of the total number of contacts and these were made primarily during the third and fourth quarters. Here, too, the community organization components with its neighborhood workers accounted for almost half of the total number of contacts made during the twelve-month-period.

Table 93

Contacts by Component and Quarter for Neighborhood Development Center Three

Component	First Quarter		Second Quarter		Third Quarter		Fourth Quarter		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Community Organization	222	98.7	300	77.5	1,700	41.8	4,610	50.1	6,832	49.2
Consumer Education	3	1.3	7	1. 8	20	.5	362	3.9	392	2.8
Credit Union	0	-	0	-	1	-	7	0.1	8	0.1
Employment	0	-	46	11.9	1,364	33.6	1,934	21.0	3,344	24.1
Housing	0	-	15	3.9	56	1.4	1,046	11.4	1,117	8.1
Neighborhood Legal Services Project	0	-	0	-	96	2.4	76	0.8	172	1.2
Social Service	0	-	14	3.6	659	16.2	1,156	12.6	1,829	13.2
Newcomer Program	0	-	0	-	2	-	0	-	2	0.0
Miscellaneous	0	-	5	1.3	166	4.1	11	0.1	182	1.3
Total	225	100	387	100	4,064	100	9,202	100	13,878	100

Table 94 shows that of the total 54,880 contacts made by all NDCs for the year, NDC One was responsible for 55.6 percent. Neighborhood Development Center Two made 10,489 contacts (19.1 percent) while Neighborood Development Center Three made 13,878 contacts (25.3 percent). This distribution is to be expected since Neighborhood Development Center One was in operation first. Table 94 also shows the percentage of the total number of contacts made by each component for the three centers.

Neighborhood Development Center One consistently accounted for better than 60 percent of the total contacts in community organization, the credit union, the Neighborhood Legal Services, and the newcomer program. The majority of contacts in housing (45.6 percent) and employment (71.9 percent) were made by Neighborhood Development Center Three.

During the third period, Neighborhood Development Center Two engaged primarily in making various surveys which explains in part why 75.8 percent of their contacts were shown under miscellaneous.

The community organization component accounted for better than half, 55.6 percent of the contacts made by all three Neighborhood Development Centers, possibly reflecting the success of the "reaching out" effort.

Table 94

Contacts by Component and Center

Component	Neighborhood Development Centers							
	NDC One		NDC Two		NDC Three		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Community Organization	21,328	69.8	2,413	7.9	6,832	22.3	30,573	55.6
Consumer Education	517	36.3	516	36.2	392	27.5	1,425	2.6
Credit Union	1,305	99.3	1	0.1	8	0.6	1,314	2.4
Employment	1,033	22.2	274	5.9	3,314	71.9	4,651	8.5
Housing	935	38.1	399	16.3	1,117	45.6	2,451	4.5
Neighborhood Legal Service Project	394	64.1	49	7.9	172	28.0	615	1.1
Social Service	3,802	40.3	3,888	40.3	809	19.4	9,439	17.2
Newcomer Program	419	97.7	8	1.9	2	0.5	429	0.8
Miscellaneous	780	19.6	3,021	75.5	182	4.6	3,983	7.3
Total	30,513	100	10,489	100	13,878	100	54,880	100
Percentage of total		55.6		19.1		25.3		100

Presented in Table 95 is the distribution of contacts by Quarter. Inspection of this table indicates marked increase in contacts occuring in the third and fourth quarters.

Table 95

Distribution of all Contacts by Center and Quarter

	Neighborhood Development Center							
	NDC One		NDC Two		NDC Three		Total	
Quarter	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
First	117	.4	142	1.4	225	1.6	484	1.0
Second	2,052	6.7	203	1.9	387	2.8	2,642	4.8
Third	7,870	25.8	4,820	45.9	4,064	29.3	16,754	30.5
Fourth	20,474	67.1	5,324	50.8	9,202	66.3	35,000	63.7
Total	30,513	100	10,489	100	13,878	100	54,880	100

Table 96 shows the distribution of contacts by component, Center and Quarter. Examination of the data indicates that the Neighborhood Development Centers increased their activity as the year progressed with the major increases taking place in the third and fourth quarters. This is a result of an increase in staff and broading of program as the centers expanded and the staff became more experienced in reaching the target population. The majority of contacts during any of the four quarters was made by the community organization component of the Neighborhood Development Center's program.

Table 96

Total Contacts by Components and by Quarter for all Neighborhood Development Centers

Component	First Quarter		Second Quarter		Third Quarter		Fourth Quarter		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Community Organization	382	79.0	1,621	61.4	7,484	44.7	21,086	60.3	30,573	55.6
Consumer Education	51	10.5	145	5.5	165	0.9	1,064	3.0	1,425	2.6
Credit Union	0	-	30	1.1	86	0.5	1,198	3.4	1,314	2.4
Employment	0	-	226	8.6	1,614	9.6	2,811	8.0	4,651	8.5
Housing	4	0.8	178	6.7	220	1.3	2,049	5.9	2,451	4.5
Neighborhood Legal Services Project	1	0.2	91	3.4	334	2.0	189	0.5	615	1.1
Social Service	46	9.5	330	12.5	2,893	17.3	6,170	17.6	9,439	17.2
Newcomer	0	-	0	-	162	1.0	267	0.8	429	0.8
Miscellaneous	0	-	21	0.8	3,796	22.7	166	0.5	3,983	7.3
Total	484	100	2,642	100	16,754	100	35,000	100	54,880	100

A rank order of program components based on the number of contacts is presented in Table 97 below. It can be seen in this table that three times as many contacts were made in community organization as in the next component which was social service.

Table 97

Rank Order of Program Components for the Year

Rank	Component	Number	Percent
1	Community Organization	30,573	55.6
2	Social Service	9,439	17.2
3	Employment	4,651	8.5
4	Miscellaneous	3,983	7.3
5	Housing	2,451	4.5
6	Consumer Education	1,425	2.6
7	Credit Union	1,314	2.4
8	Neighborhood Legal Service	615	1.1
9	Newcomer Program	429	0.8
Total		54,880	100

Table 98 shows that census tracts 48, 49 and 50 had markedly more contacts with the Neighborhood Development Centers than did the other 15 census tracts in the Cardozo School District.

Residents of census tract 52.2 (the area between Vermont Avenue and 16th Streets, and Massachusetts Avenue and H Streets) were least represented in the total number of contacts. A total of 23,802 of the contacts made by Neighborhood Development Center One (77.9 percent) lived in census tracts 48, 49, 50 and 52.1. The majority of contacts made by Neighborhood Development Center Three were in census tracts 27, 28, 29 and 32. The largest number of contacts that Neighborhood Development Center Two made were in census tracts 36, 37 and 44.

When non-target area contacts are combined with those for whom no address was available, the two categories comprise 27 percent of all contacts made during the year. Of all contacts, 73 percent (40,051) were made in the target area where more than the person's name was recorded.

Table 98

Distribution of the Number of Neighborhood Development Center Contacts by Census Tracts

Census Tract	Neighborhood Development Center			Total	Percentage
	One	Two	Three		
27	73	68	1,367	1,508	2.7
28	163	83	2,173	2,419	4.4
29	38	69	1,672	1,779	3.2
30	48	55	793	896	1.6
31	45	51	681	777	1.4
32	55	50	1,746	1,251	2.2
35	52	329	131	512	0.9
36	96	1,554	151	1,801	3.3
37	47	860	161	1,068	1.9
39	12	21	782	815	1.5
43	68	403	31	502	0.9
44	295	776	67	1,138	2.0
45	261	450	24	735	1.3
48	9,417	87	242	9,746	17.7
49	7,833	118	131	8,082	14.7
50	5,117	110	159	5,386	9.8
52.1	1,435	46	111	1,592	2.9
52.2	28	6	10	44	0.0
Non-Target Area	2,995	1,744	2,162	6,860	12.5
Inadequate Information	2,475	3,609	1,885	1,964	14.5
Total	30,513	10,489	13,878	54,880	99.4

Characteristics of Population Served

There were 11,681 individual contacts, exclusive of contacts made while attending a meeting, conducting a survey, collecting signatures on a petition, etc. It should be pointed out that with many of these individual contacts only the date, name, address and the phone number of the individual was recorded.

The intake form used at the Neighborhood Development Centers requested background data on all persons who presented themselves for service at the three Neighborhood Development Centers. This intake form requested information on age, sex, race, marital status, education and income. Complete data were not reported on all intake forms and the seven tables which follow are based only on data reported by the Neighborhood Development Centers on the intake forms.

Table 99 shows the distribution by age of the population served. The table reveals that the age group 20 to 29 constitutes the highest proportion of persons presenting themselves for service to the three UPO Neighborhood Development Centers.

Proportionately, NDC One tended to be contacted more by persons in the 20 to 29 age group (29.7 percent), while NDC Two had a majority of contacts who were 17 years of age or younger (33.7 percent). The age group served by NDC Three was in the 20 to 29 age group. The median age for the total population was 21.5 years.

Table 99

Individual Contacts by Age (whereknown) and

Neighborhood Development Centers for the Year

Age	NDC One		NDC Two		NDC Three		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
17 and below	449	19.1	805	33.7	168	12.4	1,422	23.3
18 - 19	420	17.9	633	26.5	220	16.2	1,273	20.9
20 - 29	696	29.7	566	23.7	485	35.7	1,747	28.7
30 - 39	358	15.3	125	5.2	226	16.6	709	11.6
40 - 49	246	10.5	136	5.7	145	10.7	527	8.6
50 - 59	123	5.2	96	4.0	61	4.4	280	4.6
60 and above	55	2.3	30	1.2	55	4.0	140	2.3
Total	2,347	100	2,391	100	1,360	100	6,098	100

The distribution of the population by sex is presented in Table 100. It can be seen in this table that the majority of persons presenting themselves for service at each of the three centers were female. Females constitute 60 percent of the total number of individual contacts. Of the three centers, NDC Two is the only one where almost equal numbers of male and females were served.

Table 100

Distribution of Individual Contacts by Sex (where known) and Neighborhood Development Center for the Year

Sex	NDC One		NDC Two		NDC Three		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Male	1,022	36	959	48	598	37	2,579	40
Female	1,809	64	1,050	52	1,002	63	3,861	60
Total	2,831	100	2,009	100	1,600	100	6,440	100

Examination of the data presented in Table 101 indicates that the majority of the persons served are single. Fifty-eight percent or 3,452 of the 5,949 individual contacts who reported on marital status were single persons. The divorced, separated and widowed persons constitute 15.7 percent or 932 of the total number reported.

Table 101

Individual Contacts by Marital Status (where known) and Neighborhood Development Center for the Year

	NDC One		NDC Two		NDC Three		Total	
Marital Status	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Single	1,661	55.8	1,092	65.4	699	53.4	3,452	58.0
Married	853	28.7	390	23.4	315	24.1	1,558	26.2
Divorced	53	1.8	32	1.9	27	2.1	112	1.9
Separated	302	10.2	118	7.1	209	16.0	629	10.6
Widowed	99	3.3	35	2.1	57	4.4	191	3.2
Common-law	5	0.2	2	0.1	-	-	7	0.1
Total	2,973		1,669		1,307		5,949	

Ninety-seven percent of the individual contacts made at the three Neighborhood Development Centers were Negro. Neighborhood Development Center Three was the only center with less than 98 percent of its total individual contacts Negro. These data are presented in Table 102.

Table 102

Individual Contacts by Race (Where known) and Neighborhood Development Center for the Year

Race	NDC One		NDC Two		NDC Three		Total	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Negro	2,400	98.02	1,884	98.3	1,236	93.5	5,520	97.1
White	40	1.6	26	1.4	47	3.5	113	2.1
Other	4	0.2	7	0.3 m	39	3.0	50	0.8
Total	2,444	100	1,917	100	1,322	100	5,683	100

Of the 4,551 individual contacts for whom educational data were reported, four percent or 176 had less than five years of schooling. Twenty-one percent or 944 had completed less than Junior High School and 69 percent or 3,149 had less than a High School education. Seventy-eight percent of the individual contacts reported by NDC One, 65 percent of those reported by NDC Two and 64 percent of those reported by NDC Three had less than high school education. The median educational level for the total group is 10.1 years. These data are presented in Table 103.

Table 103

Individual Contacts by Educational Level (Where Known) and Neighborhood Development Center for the Year

	NDC One		NDC Two		NDC Three		Total	
Years of Education	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1-4	66	4	66	4	44	3	176	4
5-8	353	22	233	14	182	14	768	17
9-12	1,157	71	1,162	73	974	74	3,293	72
12 +	56	3	139	9	119	9	314	7
Total	1,632	100	1,600	100	1,319	100	4,551	100

Table 104 shows the distribution of individual contacts by income. Examination of the data presented in this table reveals that 318 of the 2,036 individual contacts (15.6 percent) on whom income data were reported were on public welfare or receiving social security benefits. Over 1,200 of the individual contacts (61.4 percent) reported earned less than $3,000 and 75.7 percent or 1,552 individual contacts earned less than $4,000 . Of the 745 individual contacts on whom income data were reported by NDC One, 204 (27.4 percent) were welfare or social security recipients. The majority of the contacts reporting on income at NDC Two were in the $2,000 to $2,999 category (30.9 percent). The median income for the total group was $2,816.00.

Table 104

Individual Contacts by Income (Where Known) and Neighborhood Development Center for the Year

	NDC One		NDC Two		NDC Three		Total	
Income	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Welfare and Social Service	204	27.4	11	3.1	103	10.9	318	15.6
0-999	67	9.1	37	10.6	133	14.1	237	11.1
1000-1999	95	12.8	38	10.9	113	12.1	246	12.1
2000-2999	148	19.8	108	30.9	204	21.7	460	22.6
3000-3999	104	14.0	47	13.5	140	14.9	291	14.3
4000-4999	60	8.0	26	7.4	96	10.2	182	8.9
5000-5999	35	4.7	18	5.2	41	4.3	94	4.6
6000-6999	17	2.3	20	5.7	52	5.5	89	4.4
7000-7999	5	0.6	3	0.9	18	1.9	26	1.3
8000-8999	10	1.3	41	11.8	42	4.4	93	5.2
Total	745	100	349	100	942	100	2,036	100

Families Receiving NDC Services

It was stated earlier that a family profile number was assigned to a family when more than one person in a given family received NDC services. Using this operational definition, a total of 1,013 families were in contact with UPO Neighborhood Development Centers during the year.

The distribution of contacts made with these families is presented in Table 105. The vast majority of contacts made by NDC One and Three in the community organization component. Examination of the data presented on NDC Two indicates that the social service component had the highest proportion of the total contacts made with that Center, (40.6 percent of 522 contacts).

The total of 7,402 family contacts indicates that of the 1,013 families, one or more persons in a given family was in contact with the NDC, or that these family members had repeated contacts with the program.

Table 105

Family Contacts by Center and

Component for the Year

	NDC One		NDC Two		NDC Three		Total	
Component	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
Community Organization	4,131	76.6	174	33.3	941	63.2	5,246	70.9
Consumer Education	106	2.0	50	9.6	95	6.4	251	3.4
Credit Union	270	5.0	1	0.2	1	0.1	272	3.7
Employment	184	3.4	10	1.9	165	11.1	359	4.9
Housing	184	3.5	27	5.2	76	5.1	289	3.9
Neighborhood Legal Service	32	0.6	3	0.6	23	1.5	58	0.8
Social Service	429	8.0	212	40.6	164	11.0	805	10.8
Newcomer	28	0.5	1	0.2	2	0.1	31	0.4
Miscellaneous*	25	0.4	44	8.4	22	1.5	91	1.2
Total	5,391	100	522	100	1,489	100	7,402	100

* This category includes contacts made through the Orientation program, Neighborhood Youth Corp, Community Service Project and the Housing Survey.

Table 106 shows the percent of adolescent cohort members and their families who were in contact with one of the NDC programs. Eighty-six contacts have been made with the total 625 youth in the adolescent cohort. (See Chapter III for discussion of the Adolescent Cohort Study).

Table 106

Number of Adolescent Cohort and/or Number of Adolescent Cohort Family Members Involved in UPO Action Programs by Quarters

Quarter	Adolescent Cohort Involved In Programs		Adolescent Cohort Family Members Involved in Programs		Total	
	Number	Percent	Number	Percent	Number	Percent
First Quarter	0	0.0	5	3.0	5	2.0
Second Quarter	15	17.4	50	30.1	65	25.8
Third Quarter	36	41.9	21	12.7	57	22.6
Fourth Quarter	35	40.7	90	54.2	125	49.6
Total	86	100.0	166	100.0	252	100.0

Summary and Conclusion

The Population Accounting Study was concerned with: (1) the number of contacts; (2) characteristics of the population served; (3) the number of families served by the three UPO Neighborhood Development Centers. The data analysis was based on information reported on Intake Records, Individual Contact Records and Participation Rosters. These data were coded and punched on IBM cards. A statistical report was submitted to UPO on a quarterly basis. The collection of data extended over the one-year-period between November 1, 1964 and October 31, 1965.

A total of 54,880 contacts were reported by the three UPO target area Neighborhood Development Centers (NDC's) for the year. The increase in Neighborhood Development Center activity during the year is reflected in the marked increase in the number of contacts reported from quarter to quarter. For example, 484 contacts or one percent of the total contacts were made in the first quarter, 2,642 contacts or 4.8 percent were made in the second quarter, 16,754 or 30.5 percent were made in the third quarter, and 35,000 or 63.7 percent were made in the fourth quarter.

Neighborhood Development Center One accounted for 55.6 percent (30,513) of the total number of contacts made during the year. That Neighborhood Development Center One made such a disproportionate number of contacts is attributed, at least in part, to the fact that the program at that center was in operation earlier than the program at the other two centers.

When the program components are ranked from the highest to lowest according to number of contacts, the order obtained was Community Organization, Social Service, Employment, Housing, Consumer Education, the Credit Union, Neighborhood Legal Service and the Newcomer program.

The success of the reaching-out concept is attested to when an examination was made of the distribution by components, Community Organization accounted for 30,573 of the total 54,880 contacts (55.6 percent) made during the year.

The analysis by census tract indicated that people living in census tracts 48, 49 and 50 had markedly more contacts with Neighborhood Development Centers than did persons in the other 15 census tracts in the target area.

There were 6,860 contacts (12.5 percent) made with non-target area persons and 1,964 contacts (14.5 percent) with persons whose addresses were not shown.

There were 11,681 individual contacts made by the three Neighborhood Development Centers during the year. This figure represents persons on whom more than name, and address was obtained. The characteristics of this population follow:

a. Age. The population served in general were young adults. The median age for this population was 21.5. This is 13.8 years less than the median age of 35.3 reported by UPO for the Cardozo area population (See WAY, 1963).

b. Sex. The majority of people served were females. Sixty percent of the total population on whom data were reported were women. This sex distribution is disproportionate to that found for the total Cardozo population. An analysis of 1960 Census data showed that females constitute 54 percent of the Cardozo population.

c. Marital Status. The majority of people served were single, (58 percent). The divorced, separated and widowed persons constituted almost 16 percent of the total number reported, while the remaining 26 percent were married.

d. Race. The majority of persons served were Negro. They constituted 97 percent of the total number. This high proportion of Negro recipients of Neighborhood Development Center services is probably indicative of the increase in the Negro population in the Cardozo district since 1960. An analysis of 1960 census data conducted by Washington Action for Youth indicated that Negroes then constituted only 72 percent of the total population for the area.

It may also be indicative of the greater need for UPO services by Negroes. WAY data also indicated that of persons living in the below average socio-economic areas at the Cardozo School District, 10.5 percent were white and 89.5 percent were non-white.

e. Education. The median educational level for the population over 25 was 10.1 years. This is about the same as that found for the total adult Cardozo population, which was 10.3 years according to an analysis conducted on 1960 census data.

Four percent of the population served had less than 4 years of education, 21 percent had less than a junior high school education and 69 percent had less than a high school education. This percentage is higher than that reported for the Cardozo population. Analysis of 1960 census data indicated that 60.8 percent of the Cardozo adult population had not completed high school.

f. Income. Of the population served 61.4 percent had incomes of less than $3,000 per year. Almost 76 percent had incomes of less than $4,000 per year. The median income for the group was $2,816 which is $1,548 less than the 1959 median income of $4,464 reported for the total Cardozo population.

A total of 1,013 families were in contact with Neighborhood Development Centers programs during the course of the year. The majority of these family contacts were with the Community Organization and Social Service program components.

These data, therefore, indicate that the population served in The Cardozo area was the intended population.

Chapter Seven

Implications and Projections

The studies included in this report represent an appraisal of selected program areas of the overall UPO effort in the Cardozo High School District. Programs involving the model school system, other than the preschool program, have not been included in this research effort. Similarly programs such as the Neighborhood Youth Corps, the Small Business Development Center, Junior Police and Citizens Corps, and other UPO operated and UPO subcontracted programs have not been included. These efforts were not directly related to the three Cardozo area Neighborhood Development Centers' operations and were,therefore, not specifically included in the original research design.

Some of the conclusions arrived at in the individual studies are tentative. They do, however, point up important research and program implications. These are discussed for each of the research studies separately.

The Base Expectancy Study

The pilot work conducted in developing a base expectancy from school data indicated that there were three, and possibly four variables, which would differentiate the school dropout from the non-dropout. These were broken homes; cumulative scholastic grade average; cumulative deportment grade average; and the Composite Verbal Reasoning and Numerical Ability Scores of the Differential Aptitude Test. The statistical analysis indicates that the precision in prediction is increased by 11.5 percent better than chance.

The four variables found to differentiate among the youth in this population represent what is generally considered to be known about the dropout and the potential dropout. These findings of this study provide a more objective base for making decisions about the youth in the Cardozo Area.

The work completed in the development of the base expectancy, however, must be considered as preliminary. The need for more relevant and more adequate data which would be included in the prediction equation is apparent. The inclusion of such data should result in an increase in the precision of prediction.

If the administrator or program planner must decide on which population funds should be expended, and where the requirement is that the population should provide the greatest payoff for the expenditure, then choice of a population based on the findings of this pilot investigation represents a basis for this selection.

The Adolescent Cohort

The analysis of the interview data collected on the 434 adolescent cohort members (379 non-institutionalized and 55 institutionalized) indicated that the two groups were not statistically different with respect to intactness or nonintactness of their homes. Similarly, there was no difference with respect to the percentile achievement scores. Their social class aspirations were no different, nor their peer group relationships. A significant difference was found on their educational level and their average scholastic grades. The groups were similiar in terms of the type of offenses they had committed. When the two groups were examined with respect to certain family characteristics, no differences were found in their perception of thier mothers' church attendance or the closeness of their family. Significant differences were found, however, on mobility, the use of alcoholic beverages and family law-violating behavior.

A large proportion living in the 18 census tracts in the Cardozo area live in areas where there is high delinquency, where the median income is low, where there is substantial overcrowding, where there is a high illegitimacy rate, and where the general socio-economic score of the area is lower than that of the city.

Analysis of the data with respect to their knowledge of involvement in UPO programs indicated that over half of the sample had heard of UPO, but less than 12 percent had been actively involved in UPO programs.

Research and Program Implications

Although the individual cases have not been isolated, it would appear that a large number of the 434 youth interviewed in this study are delinquent prone, if the included variables are to be accepted as associated with delinquency.

It is obvious that the programs of intervention as of the summer of 1965, for the most part had not begun to reach this segment of the population to any great extent. If the 14 and 17 year-old youth on whom these data were collected can be identified in terms of their likelihood of becoming delinquent, then program efforts can be more directly focused upon these youth.

It is also obvious that a great deal more research needs to be conducted on this segment of the population. Research effort could identify youth who are delinquency prone at an early age.

A variety of data on youth is currently being collected by a number of public and private agencies in the District of Columbia. This procedure obviously leads to overlap and duplication of effort. It would seem that UPO as the major social planning and coordinating agency in the District of Columbia could take the initiative in this respect.

The coordination of data collection and processing of these data on youth could provide the basis for complete case work-ups on youth with problems. Such work-ups would form the basis for making more realistic diagnostic and prognostic statements about a given youth. Once these statements are generated, the necessary intervention steps could be undertaken.

If such data were available to the program planner, it is obvious that he could therefore, begin to focus on the specifics of the social pathology surrounding the youth who are likely to become school dropouts and juvenile delinquents.

Such a research effort could provide interested agencies on a "need-to-know basis" with a wealth of consistent information about the youth with whom they are working. It is obvious that this would ultimately lead to a reduction in cost incurred and provide the framework for developing programs of early detection and prevention, of not only juvenile delinquency, but other social problems to be found among the low-income population.

The analysis of the data collected from 56 low-income mothers in the Cardozo area led to a tentative acceptance of the hypotheses that family form and family style-of-life are related to (1) the extent to which the low-income family is integrated into the community or neighborhood; (2) the availability and utilization of resources by the low-income family; (3) the social deviancy found in the low-income family; (4) the type of goal setting behavior of the low-income family; and (5) their knowledge of and response to intervention efforts.

Rrsearch Implications and Program

The results obtained indicate that the majority of low-income families have not actively been involved in United Planning Organization programs. It is contended that this lack of involvement is related to their particular family style and family form. The parents who manage their affairs poorly in all probability lack the knowledge and confidence to take advantage of intervention efforts available to them. This suggests that a more intensive and focused effort will have to be initiated by programs of intervention to reach such families.

As Lewis (1961) and Miller (1964) have pointed out, the low-income families living in deviant neighborhoods should not be considered a "homogeneous lower class culture." There is a growing body of evidence which suggests that programs of intervention would be far more effective if there were recognition of the fact that there are different family forms and family styles, and that the response to intervention efforts will vary according to the particular family form and family style.

The differential responses to the variables included in this study by these intact and non-intact, stable and unstable families seem to be related to their economic circumstances. If indeed these family forms and family styles are adaptations to socio-economic circumstances as Lee Rainwater (1966) contends, it would seem to be more important to change the socio-economic situation of these low-income families. This, then, may result in new and more effective patterns of adaptations.

The number of families included in this study was not large enough to conduct a sophisticated analysis of the data. Further research is, therefore, needed, with larger numbers of families that fit the criteria imposed by this study. In addition, there is a need to examine more profoundly the quality of life among these low-income families.

The Preschool Studies

The preschool studies represented a considerable expenditure of research effort over the last year. The continuing collection of data on the preschool children in the population Accounting Study, the Psychological and Psychomotor Studies and the Home Environment and Child-Rearing Studies of Preschool sample constituted a rather intensive examination of the impact of the preschool experience on this population. The program and research implications based on the results obtained from the analysis of data collected in each of the preschool studies are presented below:

The Population at Intake, Enrollment and Attendance

There was some difficulty initially in recruiting children for entry into the preschool program. The low number of participants from eight of the 18 centus tracts in the Cardozo District is due, at least in part, to this difficulty. According to the number of live births reported by the Department of Public Health, District of Columbia, a considerably larger population should have been available for recruitment than is reflected in the relative contribution to the total preschool population from tracts 29,30, 31, 36, 37, 39, 45, and 52.1 in the target area.

It is also quite possible that a selection factor was operating with the children who were initially enrolled in the program. Parents who would be interested in having their children enrolled had read about the opening of the Preschool Centers in the newspapers; many of the "hard-core" families were unaware of the opening of the program. In order to allow for wider participation in the program, an enumeration of the preschool age population should be undertaken. This enumeration could be conducted by the three Neighborhood Development Centers and would serve to notify parents of the existence of the program.

The conclusion drawn from the analysis of the preschool absentee data indicated that the Preschool Centers exhibited relatively strong holding-power for the enrolled preschool population. The absentee and dropout rate for the five preschool centers were both relatively low. Some children who never actually attended classes were recorded as enrolled, then absent and subsequently dropped from the roll book, resulting in deceptive dropout and absentee rates.

In these instances the child should not be classified as enrolled until he physically presents himself to a particular preschool center.

The Home Environment and Child Rearing Practices Study

This aspect of the preschool studies indicated that the mothers of the children in the population studied tended to be restrictive in their control of the natural urges and personal habits of the child. They were more permissive in their control of aggression. They show a great deal of involvement in the pain and discomfort of their children and in affectional relationships. The mothers whose combined income was above the median for this group, however, showed significantly more involvement in the child's pain and discomfort than did the mothers whose family income was below the median of the group.

The homes of the preschool child were rated as having few intellectual materials and many were rated as having obvious material deprivation. The overcrowded homes and the homes where the combined family income was below the median of the group had markedly fewer intellectual materials.

Program and Research Implications

Continued study of the impact of the preschool experience is important. There is a dearth of reliable evidence to support the view that the child from a low-income family exposed to preschool education will continue to be differentiated beyond the elementary school level. There is also more basic concern which relates to the development of awareness on the part of the child that the world as seen in the preschool situation differs quite markedly from the picture seen in his overcrowded, and stimulus-poor home. There perception of these differences may ultimately have effects that would negate the immediate, positive effects achieved as a byproduct of the preschool experience. If the differences which the child perceives between home and the school are not reduced, then the possibility of a future cleavage between parent and child is increased.

There is a need to not only intensify the efforts to involve the parents of the preschool child in the operational aspects of the program but to make a realistic appraisal of the parents potentials and develop a focused and coordinated program aimed at increasing the socio-economic status of these low-income parents so that they are better able, both phychologically and economically to pursue the educational and cultural goals of the preschool program.

The Language Study

The study of the language of the preschool sample revealed that when these children were tested using the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, their mean I.Q. score was in the below average range of intelligence. The mean I.Q. as measured by the Stanford-Binet indicated that these preschool children were functioning within the average range of intelligence.

The Word Association Test administered to these children revealed that they, in general, responded to the stimulus word with nouns.

In the spontaneous speech situation and with the presentation of stimulus cards (The Blacky Projective Test) the children were quite verbally responsive.

This finding that the children tended to respond to the stimulus word with nouns indicates that there is a need to build into the preschool program, training in syntactical organization. Further research is needed to refine and test the techniques and instruments used in this study. The seventeen-point I.Q. difference between Stanford-Binet results and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test strongly suggests the need for further comparisons between these two instruments on this and other preschool populations. This is particularly important because the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was used during the summer of 1965 for testing of the preschool population enrolled in Project Headstart. Interpretations based on the administration of PPVT to a preschool population must take into consideration the likelihood that this test is penalizing children from low-income families.

Intellectual and Psychomotor Functioning

The intellectual functioning of the preschool sample was measured by administering the Stanford-Binet Test of Intelligence. Their psychomotor performance was measured by using selected subtests of the Stanford-Binet. As previously stated, the results obtained indicated that these children were functioning within the average range of intelligence. These children exhibited a significant increase in the level of psychomotor performance upon being retested seven months later. The children whose median income was above that of this group scored significantly higher on the test of intelligence than the children whose family incomes were below the median of the group.

There were no differences in the initial scores obtained by those children exposed to the preschool experience and those children who were not exposed. There also were no differences between the five United Planning Organization Preschool Centers and their effect on the intellectual functioning of these children.

The absence of a difference between the results obtained in testing these children initially and seven months later is not to be interpreted as an absence of a positive effect of the preschool experience on the cognitive development of these children. From the program point of view, however, it seems necessary to ascertain whether the content and operation of the program provides, in reality, the quality of intellectual stimulation that promotes cognitive development.

One of the research aims in testing the preschool sample at the beginning of school was to gain some baseline information concerning the level of intellectual functioning of the children at that time. It was the opinion of the research staff that the objectives of the preschool program would be contaminated if the teachers were apprised of the test scores of specific children. The teachers, however, felt that they could make better plans for individual children, or have a better idea of a child's ability and capacity, if they had available differential diagnostic information concerning the child's psychological functions. The implication here is that there is a need for establishing such a service within the preschool program. A psychologist would be able to assess the individual abilities of the children and report this information in such a manner that would be of value to the teacher in working with the individual preschool enrollee and his parents, but, hopefully, without contaminating future research.

It has been stated several times in this report that the true effect of the preschool experience may not be discernable for several years later. It will be necessary to ascertain the progress of this population at periodic intervals, ideally through junior high school. From the data generated on this population, it may be possible to develop predictive indices of school performance for this and similar populations.

Population Accounting

The median age of the population indicated that they were, in general, young adults. The majority of the persons in contact with the three Neighborhood Development Centers were Negro. Single females constituted a high proportion of the contacts. The median educational level of the population was 10.1 years and the median income was $2,816.00. Of the 11,681 individual contacts made by the Neighborhood Development Centers, 1,013 involved two or more persons in a given family.

The majority of the contacts were made in the community organization or social service component of the Neighborhood Development Center program. The findings reported as a result of the analysis of the population accounting data indicate that United Planning Organization has been effective in reaching a low-income population. It is also highly probable, that the total number of contacts reported, however, are less than the total number of contacts made with this population during the year.

The question that has not been answered by this study is what happened to the persons who were recipients of United Planning Organization's services. The reporting of contacts and characteristics of the population is not sufficient. What is needed is a follow-up to determine the ultimate disposition of the problems which brought these low-income persons into contact with United Planning Organization.

The quality of the services received is of equal concern. It seems appropriate to ask whether the new programs and services in the target area have been more effective in helping this low-income population than the traditional services that were available prior to the implementation of the United Planning Organization program.

Another question which must be raised is, did the contact with the United Planning Organization Neighborhood Development Center result in the individual being made better, or worse, by being made more aware of the fact that he indeed has a problem for which there was no current solution?

ABSTRACT

The "Net Impact" of the Cardozo Area Demonstration Program

1964-1965

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The components of the United Planning Organization (UPO) Demonstration Program funded by the President's Committee on Youth Crime and Delinquency are directed toward the reduction of juvenile delinquency in the Cardozo School District.

The programs are based on the assumption that a distinct relationship exists between delinquent behavior and low socio-economic status, and that by providing access to the opportunity system, thereby effecting a broadening of the economic base of the target area, a substantial decrease in delinquent and other anti-social behavior will occur.

This study was undertaken as part of an attempt to evaluate the "Net Impact" of this anti-delinquency demonstration program.

The present report is based on the data collected during the first year of what was originally intended as a three-year study. The findings of this report was intended to be used as a reference to the Demonstration staff for their guidance rather than as a total "outside" assessment and evaluation of overall program. This is in part an inherent limitation of part of this particular study. This year's report describes the population and the techniques utilized in collecting evaluation data. Neither the program nor the data collection are sufficiently advanced to provide definitive answers on overall effectiveness.

During the first year of activity, five major study areas were included in the research design: 1) the development of Base Expectancy data on the area youth population with consideration of the feasibility of mounting an evaluative study predicated on base expectancy tables; 2) identification and study of a randomly selected Adolescent Cohort, aged 14 and 17, from the total population of the target area; 3) a study of the families of part of the Adolescent Cohort; 4) focused study of a sample of the demonstration pre-school population of the target area;

5) an accounting of total population receiving services from the various components of the demonstration program.

The Base Expectancy Study

The original design called for work to begin on the development of base expectancy tables. These tables were to be used to make predictions of delinquent behavior on the youth in the target area population generated on the basis of expectations derived from current and past experience of a 17-year-old population. These were to be used as a baseline in evaluating possible effects of program intervention in changing outcome. Youth who had certain characteristics, i.e., came from broken homes, were school dropouts, had developed patterns of truancy, were to be classified into medium, high, or low risk categories. It was hypothesized that if the United Planning Organization's programs were effective in reducing juvenile delinquency, the predictions generated from these data would not hold.

A pilot study was conducted to determine whether data recorded in the Public School records could be used in the establishment of a base expectancy. Data were collected from the school records of 62 current school enrollees and 51 school dropouts. All of the youth included in this pilot study were 17 years of age and all were either currently enrolled in, or had dropped out of, the Cardozo High School. The resulting data included selected variables which were hypothesized to be indicators of school performance and dropout behavior. Retrospective data were collected and recorded on these variables for these youth at the time when they were age 14. The results of the analysis of these data are not definitive.

The development of the base expectancy, therefore, must be considered to be in the initial phase. It is clear, however, that of the many sets of data describing the original population of this study, at least three and possibly four variables are capable of sharply discriminating between those subjects who dropped out of school and those who did not. Those variables found to be statistically significant were: broken homes, cumulative average scholastic grade and cumulative average deportment grade. The composite Verbal Reasoning and Numerical Ability Score of the Differential Aptitude Test approached significance to the point where it may be considered discriminating.

These preliminary efforts represent a major step in the direction of identifying the characteristics of the potential dropout and the potential delinquent in the Cardozo School District.

The Adolescent Cohort

Youth born in 1950 and 1947 and whose home addresses indicated that they lived in the Cardozo Target Area were enumerated using records obtained from the area's public and parochial schools, the Youth Employment Counseling Center, Lorton Youth Center, National Training School and the Children's Center. From the 1,644 youth enumerated, a sample of 310 14-year-olds and 315 17-year-olds was drawn. These youth constitute the adolescent cohort and included the total number of institutionalized youth 14 and 17 years of age.

A total of 455 of the 625 youth (72 percent) in the adolescent cohort were interviewed. Data from 434 of these interviews were included in the analysis. One hundred twenty-three of the youth selected for the sample could not be located and were not interviewed. These youth have been traced through the United States Post Office and the D. C. Public Schools. An additional 47 youth were in the Armed Services, had moved out of town, were uncooperative or deceased.

The interviewing was completed between June 20, 1965 and December 31, 1965. The interviews were conducted by Neighborhood Youth Corps Trainees, graduate and undergraduate students of Howard University.

The analysis of the interview data was concerned with individuals, family and neighborhood factors for the institutionalized and non-institutionalized youth included in this study. An attempt was made to determine what factors differentiated between the institutionalized and non-institutionalized adolescent. It was reasoned that the making of such a determination would be of value in identifying the vulnerable youth in the Cardozo area included in this population. Once such an identification is made, intervention efforts could then become more focused.

It was hypothesized that intervention would be directly related to institutional status and home status of these adolescents. The analysis revealed that there was no significant difference between the youth who were in institutions and those who were not in institutions irrespective of their home status. Slightly better than 51 percent of the youth included in this study were from intact homes while 48.6 percent were from non-intact homes.

The individual characteristics of the youth, who were in institutions and those not in institutions were not significantly different irrespective of their home status. No difference was found between the percentile achievement score for those institutionalized and those not institutionalized. The social class aspiration and peer group behavior is essentially the same for the institutional and non-institutional population. Both groups of youth have been involved in offenses for which they have been arrested.

The youth are significantly different, however, on the educational variable. The institutionalized youth tends to drop out of school earlier and his average scholastic grade is lower than the non-institutionalized population. The finding of an absence of a difference with respect to home status and the achievement scores obtained by these youth suggest that there is a significant number of delinquency prone or delinquency vulnerable youth in the non-institutionalized population.

The youth from this low income population have social class aspirations that would place them in the middle or upper class. Similarly, their occupational aspirations indicates that they preceive themselves achieving at a professional level.

The absence of a difference between the two groups on the broken home variable, which has been repeatedly shown to be associated with juvenile delinquency, however, may attest to the presence of delinquency proneness.

When the family characteristics were examined no difference was found between the institutional population and non-institutional population with respect to church attendance and the youth's perception of the closeness of their family. A significant difference was found between mobility rates, family deviancy with respect to law violating behavior and a higher frequency of alcohol consumption.

When the neighborhood deviancy variable was examined, many of the youth both from the institutionalized population and the non-institutionalized population come from high delinquency areas. They come from areas where the median income is low, where overcrowding is high, where the incidence of broken homes is high, where the illegitimacy rates are high, and where the overall socio-economic circumstances are low.

The fact that only 50 of the 434 youth from this low-income population had been involved in the UPO programs suggested that a more intensified effort needs to be made, not only to locate these specific youth, but to develop programs specifically aimed at alleviating the factors which may be related to their subsequently becoming delinquents.

It is obcious that the programs of intervention as of the summer of 1965, for the most part had not begun to reach this segment of the population to any great extent. If the 14 and 17 year-old youth on whom these data were collected can be identified in terms of their likelihood of becoming delinquents, then program efforts can be more directly focused upon these youth.

It is also obvious that a greal deal more research needs to be conducted on this segment of the population. Research effort could identify youth who are delinquency prone at an early age.

A variety of data on youth is currently being collected by a number of public and private agencies in the District of Columbia. This procedure obviously leads to overlap and duplication of effort. It would seem that UPO as the major social planning and coordinating agency in the District of Columbia could take the initiative in this respect.

The coordination of data collection and processing of these data on youth could provide the basis for complete case work-ups on youth with problems. Such work-ups would form the basis for making more realistic diagnostic and prognostic statements about a given youth. Once these statements are generated, the necessary intervention steps could be undertaken.

If such data were available to the program planner, it is obvious that he could therefore, begin to focus on the specifics of the social pathology surrounding the youth who are likely to become school dropouts, and juvenile delinquents.

Such a research effort could provide interested agencies on a "need-to-know basis" with a wealth of consistent information about the youth with whom they are working. It is obvious that this would ultimately lead to reduction in cost incurred and provide the framework for developing programs of early detection and prevention, of not only juvenile delinquency, but other social problems to be found among the low-income population.

The Family Study

Recent programs of intervention aimed at increasing the socio-economic status of the low income family, have focused on the low-income family as a homogeneous mass. It was the contention of this study that family form and family style-of-life would effect the type and extent of effectiveness of these intervention processes with the low-income families.

Family form was defined as being intact or non-intact. The intact family was operationally defined as one in which both the natural parents were present or one with one natural parent and a mother or father surrogate. The non-tact family was defined as one in which only one parent or parent surrogate was present.

Family style-of-life was termed stable or unstable. The operational definition of a stable family was one in which the income was below the medium income ($5,993) of the District of Columbia, but above the medium income ($4,329.50) of this group of low-income families. The unstable family was one in which the medium income was below the median income of the group. Using income as a criterion, the 56 families included in this study were selected from a total of 101 interviews conducted with mothers of the adolescent sample over the summer of 1965. Eighty-one interviews were conducted with non-intact families and 20 interviews were conducted with the intact families. The final sample selected for this study included 11 families that were non-intact and 45 that were intact.

When the relationship between family form and family style-of-life and the integration of these low-income families into the community and neighborhood were examined, the following results were obtained:

(a) Fifty percent of these low-income mothers reported their families moved once within the last five years. The majority of the movement was reported by the non-intact families.

(b) The majority of these low-income mothers had a neutral feeling about their neighborhoods. Nearly one-fourth of these mothers felt, however, that it was a very bad place in which to live. A preponderance of non-intact, stable families felt that the neighborhood was a bad place to live.

(c) These low-income families tend to do very little visiting in their neighborhoods. The non-intact unstable families tend to do more visiting than any other family forms or family styles.

It was hypothesized that family form and family style-of-life would be related to the resources available and the utilization of these resources by these low-income families. Analysis of the data to test this hypothesis indicated the following:

(a) Almost one-fourth of these low-income families have been on public welfare within the last five years. More unstable, non-intact families report having been on welfare than any other family forms and family styles.

(b) Half of these low-income families report having had only one job during the last five years. The distribution was examined to determine which family form and family style had proportionately held more jobs. The unstable, intact family fell more frequently into this category.

(c) The majority of these families are currently purchasing life insurance. The comparisons between family styles and family forms indicated a high proportion of the stable, non-intact families were not carrying life insurance.

(d) Only one-half of these low-income families reported carrying health insurance. Again the non-intact, unstable family had proportionately less health insurance than any other family form or family style.

(e) Few of the families delay getting needed medical care, but only half of the total report receiving needed dental care. Proportionately more of the stable, non-intact families report not having received needed dental care. A markedly high proportion of the stable, intact families report delaying getting needed dental care.

(f) Over one-third of these families reported lack of money as a pressing problem for the family. Analysis of the data on personal debts indicated that the majority of the respondents report having personal debts. Proportionately, more of the stable non-intact family mothers report personal debts. A markedly higher proportion, however, report that they do not have savings.

(g) Thirty-one of these families felt that they spent the right amount of money on food, clothing, and shelter. More of the non-intact, stable families felt, however, that they did not spend enough on these basic needs.

The hypothesis regarding family form, family style-of-life and the extent of social deviance found within the family was also tentatively accepted. The majority of these low-income mothers did not feel that their children had any serious difficulty with the police and even fewer of them reported that their adolescent sons or daughters had difficulty in school. The mothers in the stable, non-intact families report proportionately more difficulty in school and more difficulty with the police for their children than the other family styles.

The majority of these low-income mothers report that they do not consume alcohol. The unstable, non-intact group, however, reports a higher proportion of alcohol consumption. They also report drinking more frequently on the weekends than do the other family forms and family style-of-life.

It was hypothesized that family form and family style-of-life would be directly related to the type and reality of goal setting behavior for this group of low-income mothers. This hypothesis was also tentatively accepted because of the following findings:

(a) These low-income mothers were asked what they would like to provide for their children over the next five years, Considerably more of them wanted to provide education for their children and homes for their families. More of the unstable, intact families listed education as what they would want to provide for their children over the next five years, Proportionately more of the stable non-intact mothers wanted to provide homes for their children.

(b) A high percentage of these low-income mothers have occupational aspirations for their sons and daughters that would put them into the business or professional category. Sixteen (28.6 percent) of these low-income mothers, however, have no defined occupational aspirations for their children. A high proportion of the intact, stable mothers have no well defined occupational aspiration for their children. A large number of these mothers feel that their sons and daughters' chances are good or at least 50-50 for attaining these occupational aspirations.

(c) For the most part, these low-income families are renting their current residences. A very high proportion of the unstable non-intact family mothers fell into this category. Conversely, a high proportion of the non-intact stable mothers are purchasing their current residences.

(d) Slightly better than 70 percent of these low-income families want to improve their current housing conditions. Again, the stable, non-intact families tend to be more satisfied with their present residences than does the other family forms and family styles.

Differential responses to intervention efforts were hypothesized to be related to the family form and family styles. Over half of these low-income families have never heard of the United Planning Organization as of the summer of 1965. Proportionately, more of the non-intact, unstable families had heard of United Planning Organization than had any of the other family forms and family styles. However, only a total of eight of these 56 families (14.3 percent) had been involved in the United Planning Organization's program.

It is contended that this lack of involvement is related to their particular family style and family form. The parents who manage their affairs poorly in all probability lack the knowledge and confidence to take advantage of intervention efforts available to them. This suggests that a more intensive and focused effort will have to be initiated by programs of intervention to reach such families.

Similarly, there is a growing body of evidence which suggests that programs of intervention would be far more effective if there were recognition of the fact that there are different family forms and family styles, and that the response to intervention efforts will vary according to the particular family form and family style.

The differential response patterns of these intact and non-intact, stable and unstable families seem to be related to their economic circumstances. If indeed these family forms and family styles are adaptations to socio-economic circumstances it would seem to be more important to change the socio-economic situation of these families. This, then, may result in new and more effective patterns of adaptations.

It is anticipated that the tentative findings of this study will help to define and help to focus intervention efforts for low-income families. It would appear that if the United Planning Organization's programs of intervention are to be effective in increasing the quality of life for the poor, consideration should be given to what types of programs of intervention best serve the needs of a specific family form and a specific family style.

The Preschool Studies

Intake, enrollment and attendance data were collected on the preschool children of the five United Planning Organization preschool centers.

In addition, a stratified random sample of 60 children was drawn from the original population of the five UPO preschool centers. This sample represented approximately one-third of the student population enrolled in each of these centers at the time the sample was drawn. A control group of 20 target area three-and four-year-old children was also drawn. Complete data were available on 57 of the enrolled children and 18 of the children not enrolled in the preschool program.

The Language Study, the Psychological and Psychomotor Studies, and the Home Environment and Child-Rearing Studies of Preschool sample constituted a rather intensive examination of the impact of the preschool experience on this population. The major findings obtained from the analysis of data collected in each of the preschool studies are presented below:

A. The Population at Intake, Enrollment and Attendance

There was some difficulty initially in recruiting children for entry into the preschool program. The low number of participants from eight of the 18 census tracts in the Cardozo District is due, at least in part, to this difficulty. According to the number of live births reported by the Department of Public Health, District of Columbia, a considerably larger population should have been available for recruitment than is reflected in the relative contribution to the total preschool population from tracts 29, 30, 31, 36, 37, 39, 45, and 52.1 in the target area.

It is also quite possible that a selection factor was operating with the children who were initially enrolled in the program. Parents who would be interested in having their children enrolled had read about the opening of the Preschool Centers in the newspapers; many of the "hard-core" families were unaware of the opening of the program. In order to allow for wider participation in the program, an enumeration of the preschool age population should be undertaken. This enumeration could be conducted by the three Neighborhood Development Centers.

The conclusion drawn from the analysis of the preschool absentee data indicated that the Preschool Centers exhibited relatively strong holding-power for the enrolled preschool population. The absentee and dropout rate for the five preschool centers were both relatively low. Some children who never actually attended classes were recorded as enrolled, then absent and subsequently dropped from the roll book, resulting in deceptive dropout and absentee rates. In these instances the child should not be classified as enrolled until he physically presents himself to a particular preschool center.

B. The Home Environment and Child Rearing Practices Study

This aspect of the preschool studies indicated that the mothers of the children in the population studied tended to be restrictive in their control of the natural urges and personal habits of the child. They were more permissive in their control of aggression. They show a great deal of involvement in the pain and discomfort of their children and in affectional relationships. The mothers whose combined income was above the median for this group, however, showed significantly more involvement in the child's pain and discomfort than did the mothers whose family income was below the median of the group.

The homes of the preschool child were rated as having few intellectual materials and many were rated as having obvious material deprivation. The overcrowded homes and the homes where the combined family income was below the median of the group had markedly fewer intellectual materials.

Continued study of the impact of the preschool experience is important. There is a dearth of reliable evidence to support the view that the child from a low-income family exposed to preschool education will continue to be differentiated beyond the elementary school level. There is also basic concern which relates to the development of awareness on the part of the child that the world as seen in the preschool situation differs quite markedly from the picture seen in his overcrowded, and stimulus-poor home. Their perception of these differences may ultimately have effects that would negate the immediate, positive effects achieved as a by-product of the preschool experience. If the differences which the child perceives between home and the school are not reduced, then the possibility of a future cleavage between parent and child is increased.

There is a need to not only intensify the efforts to involve the parents of the preschool child in the operational aspects of the program but to make a realistic appraisal of the parents' potentials and develop a focused and coordinated program aimed at increasing the socio-economic status of these low-income parents so that they are better able, both psychologically and economically to pursue the educational and cultural goals of the preschool program.

C. The Language Study

The study of the language of the preschool sample revealed that when these children were tested using the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, their mean I.Q. score was in the below average range of intelligence. The mean I.Q. as measured by the Stanford-Binet indicated that these preschool children were functioning within the average range of intelligence.

The Word Association Test administered to these children revealed that they, in general, responded to the stimulus word with nouns.

In the spontaneous speechh situation and with the presentation of stimulus cards (The Blacky Projective Test) the children were quite verbally responsive.

This finding that the children tended to respond to the stimulus word with nouns indicates that there is a need to build into the preschool program, training in syntactical organization. Further research is needed to refine and test the techniques and instruments used in this study. The seventeen-point I. Q. difference between Stanford-Binet results and the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test strongly suggests the need for further comparisons between these two instruments on this and other preschool populations. This is particularly important because the Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test was used during the summer of 1965 for testing of the preschool population enrolled in Project Headstart. Interpretations based on the administration of PPVT to a preschool population must take into consideration the likelihood that this test is penalizing children from low-income families.

D. Intellectual and Psychomotor Functioning

The intellectual functioning of the preschool sample was measured by administering the Stanford-Binet Test of Intelligence. Their psychomotor performance was measured by using selected subtests of the Stanford-Binet. As previously stated, the results obtained indicated that these children were functioning within the average range of intelligence. These children exhibited a significant increase in the level of psychomotor performance upon being retested seven months later.

The children whose median income was above that of this group scored significantly higher on the test of intelligence than the children whose family incomes were below the median of the group.

There were no differences in the initial scores obtained by those children exposed to the preschool experience and those children who were not exposed. There also were no differences between the five United Planning Organization's Preschool Centers and their effect on the intellectual functioning of these children.

The absence of a difference between the results obtained in testing these children initially and seven months later is not to be interpreted as an absence of a positive effect of the preschool experience on the cognitive development of these children. From the program point of view, however, it seems necessary to ascertain whether the content and operation of the program provides, in reality, the quality of intellectual stimulation that promotes cognitive development.

One of the research aims in testing the preschool sample at the beginning of school was to gain some baseline information concerning the level of intellectual functioning of the children at that time. It was the opinion of the research staff that the objectives of the preschool program would be contaminated if the teachers were apprised of the test scores of specific children. The teachers, however, felt that they could make better plans for individual children, or have a better idea of a child's ability and capacity, if they had available differential diagnostic information concerning the child's psychological functions. The implication here is that there is a need for establishing such a service within the preschool program. A psychologist would be able to assess the individual abilities of the children and report this information in such a manner that would be of value to the teacher in working with the individual preschool enrollee and his parents.

The true effect of the preschool experience may not be discernable for several years. It seems necessary to ascertain the progress of this population at periodic intervals, ideally through junior high school. From the data generated on this population, it may be possible to develop predictive indices of school performance for this and similar populations.

The Population Accounting Study

The Population Accounting Study was concerned with: 1) the number of contacts; 2) characteristics of the population served; 3) the number of families served by the three UPO target area Neighborhood Development Centers. The data analysis was based on information reported on Intake Records, Individual Contact Records and Participation Rosters. The collection of data extended over the one-year-period between Nobember 1, 1964 and October 31, 1965.

A total of 54,880 contacts were reported by the three UPO target area Neighborhood Development Centers (NDC's) for the year. The increase in Neighborhood Development Center activity during the year is reflected in the marked increase in the number of contacts reported from quarter to quarter. For example, 484 contacts or one percent of the total contacts were made in the first quarter, 2,642 contacts or 4.8 percent were made in the second quarter, 16,754 or 30.5 percent were made in the third quarter, and 35,000 or 63.7 percent were made in the fourth quarter.

When the program components are ranked from the highest to lowest according to number of contacts, the order obtained was Community Organization Social Service, Employment, Housing, Consumer Education, the Credit Union, Neighborhood Legal Service and the Newcomer Program.

The success of the reaching-out concept is attested to when an examination was made of the distribution by components, Community Organization accounted for 30,573 of the total 54,880 contacts (55.6 percent) made during the year.

The analysis by census tract indicated that people living in census tracts 48, 49 and 50 had markedly more contacts with Neighborhood Development Centers than did persons in the other 15 census tracts in the target area.

There were 6,860 contacts (12.5 percent) made with non-target area persons and 1,964 contacts (14.5 percent) with persons whose addresses were not shown.

There were 11,681 individual contacts made by the three Neighborhood Development Centers during the year. This figure represents persons on whom more than name, and address was obtained. The characteristics of this population follow:

a. Age. The population served in general were young adults. The median age for this population was 21.5. This is 13.8 years less than the median age of 35.3 reported by UPO for the Cardozo area population (See WAI, 1963).

b. Sex. The majority of people served were females. Sixty percent of the total population on whom data were reported were women. This sex distribution is disproportionate to that found for the total Cardozo population. An analysis of 1960 Census data showed that females constitute 54 percent of the Cardozo population.

c. Marital Status. The majority of people served were single, (58 percent). The divorced, separated and widowed persons constituted almost 16 percent of the total number reported, while the remaining 26 percent were married.

d. Race. The majority of persons served were Negro. They constituted 97 percent of the total number. This high proportion of Negro recipients of Neighborhood Development Center services is probably indicative of the increase in the Negro population in the Cardozo district since 1960. An analysis of 1960 census data conducted by Washington Action for Youth indicated that Negroes then constituted only 72 percent of the total population for the area. It may also be indicative of the greater need for UPO services by Negroes. WAY data also indicated that of persons living in the below average socio-economic areas at the Cardozo School District, 10.5 percent were white and 89.5 percent were non-white.

e. Education. The median educational level for the population over 25 was 10.1 years. This is about the same as that found for the total adult Cardozo population, which was 10.3 years according to an analysis conducted on 1960 census data.

Four percent of the population served had less than 4 years of education, 21 percent had less than junior high school education and 69 percent had less than high school education. This percentage is higher than that reported for the Cardozo population. Analysis of 1960 census data indicated that 60.8 percent of the Cardozo adult population had not completed high school.

f. Income. Of the population served 61.4 percent had incomes of less than $3,000 per year. Almost 76 percent had incomes of less than $4,000 per year. The median income for the group was $2,816 which is $1,548 less than the 1959 median income of $4,464 reported for the total Cardozo population.

A total of 1,013 families were in contact with Neighborhood Development Centers' programs during the course of the year.

The majority of all of the contacts were made in the Community Organization or Social Service components of the Neighborhood Development Center programs. The findings reported as a result of the analysis of the population accounting data indicate that United Planning Organization has been effective in reaching a low-income population. It is also highly probable, that the total number of contacts reported, however, are less than the total number of contacts made with this population during the year.

The question that has not been answered by this study is what happened to the persons who were recipients of United Planning Organization's services. The reporting of contacts and characteristics of the population is not sufficient. What is needed is a follow-up to determine the ultimate disposition of the problems which brought these low-income persons into contact with United Planning Organization.

The quality of the services received is of equal concern. It seems appropriate to ask whether the new programs and services in the target area have been more effective in helping this low-income population than the traditional services that were available prior to the implementation of the United Planning Organization program.

Another question which must be raised is, did the contact with the United Planning Organization Neighborhood Development Center result in the individual being made better, or worse, by being made more aware of the fact that he indeed has a problem for which there was no current solution.

Once an intensive examination is made of the quality of services and the outcome for the population served, then there is an objective basis for determining what programs and what types of services are most effective in serving the needs of a given segment of the population.

Such an intensive examination of the program and outcome should result in a more objective basis for making decisions regarding what elements of these programs need to be revamped.

The median age obtained for the population indicated that they were young adults. The interrelationship, however, between sex and age was not determined in this study. It seems probable that the majority of these young adults were females with less than high school education. The implication for program development here is that there is a need for more practical educational, job training programs for these young adults, irrespective of their sex, based on realistic projections of the labor market in the Washington Metropolitan Area.

From a research point of view, the fund of data collected on the target population over this one-year-period represents the beginning of a "data bank" on the low-income individuals and families in the Cardozo School District. The continuation and expansion of this data collection and analysis should prove invaluable in the development of predictive indices regarding "treatment effect" for this population.

It should be emphasized that population accounting in a community action program should serve a feedback function to the extent that it provides the operating personnel and program administrator with current information on the number and characteristics of the population served, as well as, data on outcome for the persons in contact with the program.

Implications and Projections

The studies included in this report represent an appraisal of selected program areas of the overall UPO effort in the Cardozo High School District. Programs involving the model school system, other than the preschool program, have not been included in this research effort. Similarly programs such as the Neighborhood Youth Corps, the Small Business Development Center, Junior Police and Citizens Corps, and other UPO operated and UPO subcontracted programs have not been included. These efforts were not directly related to the three Cardozo area Neighborhood Development Centers' operations and were, therefore, not specifically included in the original research design.

Some of the conclusions arrived at in the individual studies are tentative. They do, however, point up important research and program implications.

One of the most critical research implications growing out of this series of studies is the need to re-examine the concept of "Net Impact" evaluation. The original concept was related to the overall effect of the United Planning Organization's target area programs on the reduction of juvenile delinquency in the Cardozo School District. Administrative and operational problems, however, necessitated that the original design be expanded to include specific program impact evaluation, in addition to performing an accounting function.

The comprehensiveness of the United Planning Organization's target area action programs, with the major emphasis on increasing the socio-economic status of the population, however, tends to make the evaluation of the effect of these programs on the reduction of juvenile delinquency subsidiary to a general evaluation of the effect of the intervention efforts on the low-income target population. Under these circumstances, the research design assumes quite different character than a design intended to study the net impact of these programs on the reduction of juvenile delinquency.

Inherent in the concept of net impact evaluation is the implication that the total effect of all program efforts will be ascertained.

The results obtained by measuring the effect of given program component is, in and of itself, not sufficient. Nor can total impact be considered as the sum of these specific efforts. Measurement of net impact must of necessity involve an evaluation of specific programs and the interaction effects of these programs over time. Inevitably, the cost benefit question must be raised by the government and the program administrator, i.e., which of the programs or combinations of programs have produced the greatest long or short range payoff for the dollars spent.

Four of the five research studies included in the original Net Impact design have been discontinued the second year because of a reduction in funds available to UPO for sub-contracting research. For this reason, the research activity which is well under way, is focusing primarily on the adolescent cohort.

The adolescent cohort represents a critical element in the study of the effects of the UPO programs, not only in terms of the reduction in juvenile delinquency, but also for determining the effects of the intervention process on specific adolescent behavior. The life patterns of the youth growing up under conditions of economic deprivation, whether or not he participates in deviant behavior, or is apprehended and adjudicated, are in need of study in order to formulate meaningful programs of prevention.

Once an intensive examination is made of the quality of services and the outcome for the population served, then there is an objective basis for determining what programs and what types of services are most effective in serving the needs of a given segment of the population. Such an intensive examination of the program and outcome should result in a more objective basis for making decisions regarding what elements of these programs need to be revamped.

The median age obtained for the population indicated that they were young adults. The interrelationship, however, between sex and age was not determined in this study. It seems probable that the majority of these young adults were female with less than high school education. The implication for program development here is that there is a need for more practical educational, job training programs for these young adults, irrespective of their sex, based on realistic projections of the labor market in the Washington Metropolitan Area.

From a research point of view, the fund of data collected on the target population over this one-year-period represents the beginning of a "data bank" on the low-income individuals and families in the Cardozo School District. The continuation and expansion of this data collection and analysis should prove invaluable in the development of predictive indices regarding "treatment effect" for this population.

It should be re-emphasized that population accounting in a community action program should serve a feedback function to the extent that it provides the operating personnel and program administrator with current information on the number and characteristics of the population served, and data on outcome for the persons in contact with the program.

One of the most critical research implications growing out of this series of studies is the need to re-examine the concept of "Net Impact" evaluation. The original concept was related to the overall effect of the United Planning Organization's target area programs on the reduction of juvenile delinquency in the Cardozo School District. Administrative and operational problems, however, necessitated that the original design be expanded to include specific program impact evaluation, in addition to performing an accounting function.

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Inherent in the concept of net impact evaluation is the implication that the total effect of all program efforts will be ascertained. The base expectancy technique was advanced as the research model for such an evaluation. When the model is used as a general model, the isolation of specific program effects becomes difficult. When the model is used on specific programs the isolation of interaction effect of related programs becomes difficult. The results obtained by measuring the effect of given program component is, in and of itself, not sufficient. Nor can total impact be considered as the sum of these specific efforts. Measurement of net impact must of necessity involve an evaluation of specific programs and the interaction effects of these programs over time. Inevitably, the cost benefit question must be raised by the government and the program administrator, i.e., which of the programs or combinations of programs have produced the greatest long or short range payoff for the dollars spent.

Projected Research Program

Four of the five research studies included in the original Net Impact design will be discontinued next year because of a reduction in funds available to UPO for sub-contracting research. For this reason, the research activity will focus primarily on the adolescent cohort.

The adolescent cohort represents a critical element in the study of the effects of the UPO programs, not only in terms of the reduction in juvenile delinquency, but also for determining the effects of the intervention process on specific adolescent behavior.

The life patterns of the youth growing up under conditions of economic deprivation, whether or not he participates in deviant behavior, or is apprehended and adjudicated, are in need of study in order to formulate meaningful programs of prevention. In this context, the adaptive behaviors developed by these youth in their environment are in need of study and analysis.

A total of 455 adolescents out of the cohort of 625 were interviewed during the first year of study. It was hypothesized that the "hard-to-locate" adolescents resprsent a large segment of the population at which the UPO intervention programs are aimed. For these reasons efforts to locate these youth will be continued over the next year.

In addition to locating and tracking the "hard-to-locate" adolescent cohort members the research efforts in this area over the next year will include the following:

1. The second annual interview of the total cohort members.
2. The designation of a series of panels from the total cohort stratified on selected individual, family, neighborhood and program intervention variables.
3. Continued analysis and reporting of data obtained from the series of adolescent panels.
4. A detailed study of adjudicated cohort members, school dropouts, and cohort members lost through attrition.
5. Analysis of the complete case work-ups on those youth whose families have been studied.
6. Collaboration with other research and training efforts within the Institute for Youth Studies and other agencies in the community that have an interest in, or have pertinent data collected on the members of the adolescent cohort and the problems of adolescent growth and development.

7. Generation of sub-studies related to the problems of youth and delinquency control and prevention in the target area.

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